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Contributions to *New Era in Education* are welcomed. Articles in the first part of the journal are refereed. Reports, short articles or views on any aspect that relates to the principles of the World Education Fellowship are also very welcome. The Editor is anxious to receive details of good practice and responses to themes covered.

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Electronic Media: A replacement for books?

Sneh Shah

There is no doubt about the amount of human and financial resources being poured into an increased use of the electronic media. There appears to be an assumption that progress at individual, national and international levels may be hindered if adequate use is not made of the latest technology.

The question, however, is whether enough thought has gone into understanding the reasons for such an expansion, and its consequences. Are the motives the most appropriate for ensuring the greatest benefit to people? Is the cost, both in financial and human resource terms justified? Are the existing methods and resources totally obsolete?

Change is inevitable, and it can be argued that innovations at the rate we are seeing currently can be a very clear indication of active and not static societies and organisations. The attractiveness of the electronic media must be much greater access to much more, by a greater number of people. Listening to many young people, and the scenes in education, industrial organisations, and private houses demonstrates the grip of the technology.

We do, however, need to pause and consider what the cost is. Are children who are as active in the use of the technology aware of, and as encapsulated by books? If they are not, should they be? Adequate research is needed to ascertain the answers to such key questions? However, if the encroachment of technology is taken side by side the impact of technology for leisure, especially by way of television, it is difficult to see if the new generation is going to grow up aware of the joy of books.

The printed word is something that can have a lasting influence on an individual, if it is received by a mind that is able to concentrate just on that. Books, whatever their content, can be possessions that can be a part of a person, although for many people many of their books remain only on the

bookshelves. Yet, when they are taken off the shelves they open up a range of new ideas and experiences.

A lot of information is being put on the internet, and for the countries and groups of people that can either afford or have access to it, the huge panorama of global experiences do become real. But the internet tempts you keep on searching for more and more information, and it can easily become difficult to stop reading a lot that is not directly relevant or beneficial. Words on the screen do not enable you to curl up with a book, whenever, and however long for.

Readers may lose control of what they have access to. It could be argued that the same constraints apply when someone goes into a bookshop as you only see what the booksellers may decide to stock. But the bookshops give you an opportunity to come away with something that you can use as you wish to, and however long for.

Communication of knowledge can certainly be much faster, but inequality between peoples and countries could be increased as the electronic media is not free.

The recent pledge by the British government to ensure that every school has access to the internet is a very important step towards producing future citizens who can compete well economically. If the parallel drive by the government to increase the national level of literacy is only going to be linked to the ability to read the words on the screens then we may need to ponder about the quality of our children's ability to benefit from the vast array of the wisdom in past and current literary works.

Overall, nationally and globally, progress is being judged against the level of use of the electronic media. Educationists need to consider their role in ensuring that children are getting what we can honestly say is good education.

School Exclusion, Poverty and Disadvantage

Carol Hayden and Brenda Lawrence

Children have always been sent home from school for behaviour which is often described as disruptive or unacceptable within the school context. Galloway et al (1982) remind us that there is nothing new about disruptive and even violent behaviour in schools. What may be new, is the way such behaviour is experienced, defined and acted upon. Exclusion is one of a number of actions taken by a school in response to behaviour which that school views as unacceptable. Exclusion is a term used to refer to the practice of sending a child home from school for a period of time, or permanently. Research interest into the issue has grown in the 1990's and especially since the publication of a discussion document in late 1992 based on the National Exclusions Reporting System, or NERS (DfE, 1992). However, what is of increasing concern about exclusion is the record rise in the practice in the early 1990's. Of particular interest is the incidence of primary school exclusions, which has not been the focus of most research.

Blaming the Victim

Children excluded from primary school tend to come from the disadvantaged sectors of society, and the syndrome of "*blaming the victim*", ensures that these children are further disadvantaged in the process. Education welfare officers and social services staff have long been used to contact with children, with disrupted, infrequent and sometimes non-existent schooling; in particular in relation to those formerly referred to as "*in care*". Social Services departments have been criticised for not paying enough attention to the education of children in their care. (Jackson, 1987; Smith, 1992; Newsome, 1992). Teachers have for some time expressed concern that a minority of children are presenting more difficult behaviour problems in school and at an earlier age (Lawrence and Steed, 1985; Coxon, 1988). This concern prompted an inquiry which led to the Elton Report on Discipline in Schools (DES/ WO, 1989). Concerns about the behaviour of children received a great deal of attention in the early 1990's particularly since the killing of two year old Jamie Bulger, by two primary aged boys in early 1993.

One cannot but be aware of the problems created in the classroom by disruptive and unmanageable behaviour. In a primary classroom of 20 children, one nuisance is manageable. However, in a class of 30 with three nuisances the situation becomes far more acute; the class becomes split into those who identify with the rebels and those who identify with the teacher. Exclusion then becomes an escape route for the school in a seemingly impossible situation. There is, however, a counterpoising argument to that which focuses on the educational system, in relation to exclusions. It is one which focuses more on what the children are doing

to warrant the exclusions they're getting, and whether exclusion is the appropriate action to take. Such a focus should include a sympathetic reconsideration of the child's family and social circumstances.

The question could be posed whether school can provide an alternative site from the home environment which might help identify and address the evident needs of some children. The primary school site as a source or community support is in keeping with comments made by Young (1990), Halsey (1993) and Webb (1994), all of whom have noted the increasing need for primary schools to act as family support services, although they reach different conclusions about the feasibility of this development.

The great majority of children live in relatively impoverished and/or often stressful circumstances, and exclusion from school is often seen as 'the last straw' for their parents and the children are arguably being further disadvantaged by being out of school and away from their peers.

Exclusion, Poverty and Disadvantage

Barber (1994) describes the decades between the end of the Second World War and the early 1970's as being a period of 'unparalleled prosperity'; it was a period when poverty was thought to have been eliminated but was then 'rediscovered' (Coates and Silburn, 1960). In the 1980's we know that there was an increase in relative poverty. Estimates of the proportion of children and families affected varies, for example, Kumar (1993) puts the figure at one in three children, and calculates that there has been a tripling in the number of children living in poverty between 1979 and 1991. The Labour Party sponsored Commission on Social Justice estimates a figure of 22% of children as living in families at income support level or below, Milhill (1993). During the same period there were major structural changes in patterns of employment and growth in unemployment in the 1980's, which Johnson (1990) argues have been exacerbated by monetarist policies.

There is also evidence of longer term changes in the nature of family formation and breakdown, with one in five children now living with one parent, and many more experiencing family breakdown in early childhood (Social Trends, 1995). There are numerous indications of the stress and difficulty of family life, for example Stone (1994) quotes a Home Office estimate of 530,000 assaults from British Crime Survey 1992, on women by men in their home each year. In ninety percent of these cases the children are in the same or adjacent room.

Halsey (1993) has highlighted the varied quality of childhood in the family, stating that although the 20th century is often seen as the century of the child, it has

also been the century of the individual. Halsey sees a deterioration in the quality of childhood, where the gains brought about by an individualist doctrine may be at the expense of children, a phenomenon he describes as 'the fight from parenthood' (p.135). As a consequence, Halsey agrees with Young (1990) that for an increasing majority of children the teacher has to take on a much more direct parenting role. Halsey (1993) recognises that many teachers probably feel they're already doing their best, and the work of Webb (1994) certainly shows that the responsibilities of teachers in primary schools have already expanded unreasonably, in reaction to the way the service is currently organised.

There is little doubt that many children need more adult time and attention than they are currently getting, and little doubt also that the level of relative poverty in the lives of so many young children means that the opportunities school can offer are crucially important. However, there has been a growing concern from some time about what public sector education can deliver in terms of measurable academic results and utility to employers. Most of the pressure upon schools currently is to improve academic performance and results in the context of tightening financial constraints, Hale (1995). It is a difficult time to get the *quality* of childhood on the agenda at schools.

Exclusion and the Quasi-Markets

When the educational context of the 1990's is examined, it can be seen to be at odds with the kinds of social needs just outlined. It is clear that the expectations of both Left and Right are focused upon academic standards and public accountability for these standards from schools. The new managerialism in education, as in other public sector services, emphasises budgets and prudent use of resources (Fergusson, 1994).

The education system is, in turn, seen as both part of the cause as well as the solution to much of the social context described in the last subsection. Politicians have been successful in shifting the 'blame' from unemployment onto an educational system which is alleged to have failed to equip children and young people with the appropriate skills to gain employment, or the morality to behave appropriately in their private lives (Bash and Coulby, 1989). The professionalism of teachers has been constantly undermined by media and political comment, at the same time as head teachers and senior teachers have had to adopt a more managerialist approach with their staff. Publicly such teachers now have to compete with other schools by marketing what is on offer, or suffer the potential consequences of loss of funds and thus staff. At the same time as this pressure to increase measurable outputs, there has been a reduction of state funds available to the system. This became particularly marked in the 1995-96 financial year, with the government refusal to fully fund the recommended pay

increases for teachers. Estimations of the resulting shortfall in funds varied (Catherall, 1995; Dean, 1995). Johnson (1990) has highlighted the trend towards higher parental contributions towards state education during the 1980's. The second half of the 1990's may witness more crucial decisions about how state education is financed.

Concerns about securing sufficient finance to avoid cuts in staffing the academic curriculum-and organisational needs of a school are likely to be the top priority in most state schools for the foreseeable future. Thus, at a time of increasing need for the full support in school for all children, as suggested by Hagley (1993), the move has been to focus more on the potential for improving academic outputs, whilst avoiding an increase in state inputs to the system. The development of this more market oriented education system in Britain has not happened in isolation, it is part of an overall direction on change in the organisation and delivery of welfare which can be found in other sectors of the welfare state, and indeed elsewhere in the world. These broader themes will now be outlined and discussed.

The Education Reform Act of 1988 (ERA) in effect introduced 'quasi' markets into the education system, ahead of the same reforms in the health service and at the same time as the changes in housing. All of this legislation introduced purchaser/provider splits in the system of state provision and competitive tendering for services. The ERA included provisions for schools to 'opt out' of local authority control and acquire grant maintained (or self governing) status. Open enrolment was introduced, whereby schools could expand or contract in numbers according to consumer preference and local management of schools (LMS) in which schools gained control over their budgets and formula funding, through which schools receive a particular unit of resource in their budget for every child they attract. By giving schools control over their resources they, in effect, have become semi-independent providers with grant maintained schools having an even greater degree of independence from LEA control than local managed schools. These reforms, when taken together, have been described as a form of education voucher, with resources being no longer allocated to schools by bureaucratic decision, but by choices of parents (Bartlett, 1992).

It is not always clear who the consumers are in this quasi-market. The consumer of education could mean any number of groups; children, their parents, further employers or even the nation as a whole. However, Blyth and Milner (1993) observe that the concept of 'consumer' in the school education service rarely includes pupils. It is parents who are seen as the people who 'choose' a school on behalf of their child. Blyth and Milner (1996) are of the opinion that children as pupils are increasingly seen as commodities in the education market, with some of them having higher value in the market than others. Furthermore, they

wryly comment that some of these children cannot be given away! Other writers have referred to some children as 'unmarketable' in the current educational system (Brooks 1992; Lovey et al, 1993). Bennett (1993) has referred to children with emotional and behavioural difficulties (EBD,14) as a particular form of 'unsaleable good'. Parsons et al (1994) describe children excluded from school as becoming in effect 'debris' to be dealt with and often fairly slowly, in his view.

What has thus been described is a social policy context and resulting changes within the education service, in which the imperatives for change are not driven by broader educational motives but by the needs of the children. It has been argued that the changes are driven by a desire to re-organise the system in a way which creates the pressure to increase measurable academic outputs. It is a policy context which conflicts with other policies, such as increasing integration of children with special educational needs and the reduction in residential care and 'out of County' placements. Such children are likely to make major demands upon the schools which may be difficult to resource appropriately, partly because of the complex nature of the problems some children have. Most notably quasi-markets in education conflict with the co-operation between services promoted by the Children Act 1989, in relation to children 'in need'.

Children in need have not been the focus of the main thrust behind education reforms since 1988, although the new Code of Practice (with respect to special educational needs) came into effect in September 1994 and may eventually help to redress the balance. One of the clearest criticisms of the effects of a quasi-market in education is the evidence that it does not promote an equitable access to and distribution of resources. Thus the introduction of published league table of examination results and other indications of performance in schools had created a climate which is less likely to be sympathetic to children who may not only produce no positive contribution to these indicators, but may also prevent others from doing so. It was predicted by the commentators throughout the 1980's that the proposed reforms in the Educational Reform Act 1988 were likely to further marginalise the most disadvantaged children. Exclusion may be seen as part of the formal representation of this process of marginalisation.

Undoubtedly, quasi-markets have created pressure on schools, but whether this aspect of social policy is an adequate explanation for the complex set of circumstances and decisions which surround an exclusion, particularly a permanent exclusion, requires a further debate. A number of additional levels of explanation might be considered when interpreting the record rise in exclusions.

Institutional explanations of behaviour of children which occasions an exclusion rests upon the belief that

any understanding of 'problem' behaviour must depend upon an examination of the way the subject interacts with their environment. It is allied to the interactionist perspective in the sociology of education and has been heavily influenced by a number of studies, such as that of Becker (1971), Cicourel and Kitsuse (1971), Labov (1973) and Hargreaves et al (1975).

Interactionists emphasise the individual skills and attitudes of teachers in explaining why a particular behaviour of a child is viewed as a problem. Other studies, most notably Rutter et al (1979), have emphasised the school effect, in particular the school 'ethos' as a major variable in how a particular child or behaviour is viewed. Yet, as Peagram (1993) observes, in the 1990's societal pressures are increasingly directive about what constitutes a problem. There was, for example, a brief consideration by the DfE as to whether they should produce a list of excludable offences, after the publication of the NERS discussion document and the passing of the Educational Act 1993 (Ward, 1994).

The growth of institutional based explanations came after a period in which socio-economic circumstances have been the main focus in much educational research, although psychologists and psychiatrists provided more individualistic explanations. Conventional wisdom, reinforced by most educational research during the 1960's and early 1970's, argues that academic progress, disruption and attendance are largely determined by pupil background. Research in the late 1970's and ruling the 1980's (Reynolds, 1976; Rutter, 1979; Galloway, 1982), began to indicate more optimistically that schools themselves make a difference. Some research specifically demonstrated the importance of school organisation and those in relation to how minor matters could escalate into suspension-worthy offences (Lawrence et al, 1977; Galloway et al, 1982). McLean (1987) and McManus (1987) showed similar findings in their work. Thus exclusion was viewed as not an inevitable consequence to a particular set of events, but as a product of a set of events dealt within a particular way. Such research is extremely important in informing the development of systems in schools which are based on notions of natural justice, but by emphasising the role of schools tends to give insufficient consideration to individual and family factors as well as the very real pressures created by education policy.

There are a wide range of debates and traditions upon which to draw when focusing upon family based explanations of children's behaviour and ultimately their exclusion from school. The most useful focus might be the capacity of the family to undertake the lead in the primary socialisation process. It is a focus which is often open to highly ideological assertions and interpretations of data (Havas, 1995). Analysis might include the socio-economic circumstances of the family, as well as interaction within the family. There

are strong opposing viewpoints about the efficacy of the modern family in relation to socialising the citizens of the future.

On the Right, some of the concerns are explicitly moral and economic and in the case of Murry (1990) relate clearly to a desire to reduce welfare provision and his particular concept of 'underclass'. Murry's arguments could be criticised for the 'victim blaming' approach noted by Blyth and Milner (1995) in relation to school exclusions. However, other writers focus upon structural causes of underclass, such as Field (1990) and others still (such as Westgaard, 1992; Baldwin et al, 1995) question the validity of the concept and usage of the term underclass. Baldwin et al (1995) are keen to point to the differences within groups via the family, from one generation to the next. Instead, Baldwin et al (1995) prefer to focus upon processes of youth transition and forms of social exclusion (21), whereby groups and individuals may be likely to follow a particular trajectory, without support or intervention. Baldwin et al (1995) view decisions about schooling (including SEN provision, exclusion from school and truancy) as one particular mechanism by which young people may be socially excluded. By concentrating upon routes to social exclusion, Baldwin et al (1995) emphasise the possibilities for social policy interventions.

The possibilities offered from family support are not discounted, but as one of the groupings they have researched are 'looked after' children, this is clearly not a possibility which can be relied upon for all children and young people. Furthermore, as Lloyd Bennett (1995) points out, children with behaviour problems can be found in every stratum of society. What he omits to say is that children from different economic strata may be viewed differently by adults in authority, as some of the interactionist studies referred to earlier have demonstrated (for example, Cicourel and Kitsuse, 1963).

In contrast to the New right criticism of families, particularly single parent families, implied in Murry's analysis, Young and Halsey (1995) take an explicitly socialist view and focus upon the plight of children, which they view as posing the most serious social problem of our time. They liken the changes in the circumstances of children today to that of children in the early period or industrialisation in the 18th and 19th Centuries. In their view there has been a polarisation of society in which the marginalisation of some groups leave many children in impoverished circumstances. However, Young and Halsey (1995) add to this group of materially impoverished youngsters those whom they see as suffering from 'time poverty'. They point out that people who are successful in the modern economy make themselves the slaves of the clock and even when they are physically present with their children "they have no time for the moment in which children live" (p. 10). This type of analysis is

flexible enough to include families from a wide range of socio-economic circumstances.

Another type of analysis maybe of use here, that is the concept of the 'chaotic family'. This is a concept known to family therapists, social workers, psychiatrists and other mental health professionals (Barker, 1993). It looks into the family as a system and analyses how it functions. In this respect it can be seen as based upon a somewhat conservative philosophy in that the wider society is not considered. This concept is based on the different models of control in families, which are termed flexible, ridged, laissez-faire and chaotic. Control is referred to as the process by which the family members are influencing each other in order to establish and maintain order within the family system. Control is viewed as needed in order to make basic maintenance possible in families as well as to provide a structure within which adaption to the changing circumstances and new demands is possible. Barker (1993) quotes Steinhauer et al (1984) in making the assessment that flexible styles of behaviour control are those most often found in healthy functioning families. Such styles are predictable but constructive and change in appropriate ways in response to changing circumstances. Rigid styles of behavioural control are high in predictability but low in constructiveness and adaptability. Laissez-faire styles of behavioural control combine moderate predictability with low constructiveness. Chaotic styles of control are low in both predictability and constructiveness. At times the style is laissez-faire and at others rigid.

One of the key aspects of such an analysis is based on learning theory and the modelling process by which the children acquire social skills. If parents behave inconsistently, children are likely to do so also. Such an analysis is attractive in its identification of the location of a problem which can be networked upon. The ideas behind such an analysis may also be transferable to the behaviour of the teachers in the classroom. However, as Ronen (1993) argues, there is a very wide range of techniques utilised for working with children and adolescents displaying behavioural problems (she writes of over 230 different types of techniques currently in use) and although many of these involve working with parents, other techniques focus upon the individual.

Individual based explanations tend to be associated with medical and psychiatric models of behaviour. Occasionally too, they may be aligned to the comments of moralists on the Right. Peagram (1993) has written of 'the original sin' model of explaining children's behaviour as drawing upon the Judain/Christian belief systems as well as common sense understandings sustained by them. In such explanations the behaviour of some children maybe viewed as inherently 'bad' or even 'evil' as though it is an in-built attribute of the child for which they (and their parents) are personally responsible.

Medical explanations of children's behaviour have tended to regard children as 'sick' and in need of treatment if they do not behave within some predefined range (Docker-Drysdale, 1968; Wolff 1969; Laslett, 1983). Psychiatric disorder explanations of behaviour relate to medical explanations in many ways, some have developed out of the work of Rutter et al (1970, 1975). However, as Peagram (1993) has noted, the very high prevalence rates of psychiatric disorder in children and adolescents had tended to indicate that traditional sources would be overwhelmed if all such children were referred for 'treatment'. Peagram's review of the available estimates show a range of between 5% and 19.4% in prevalence studies. Peagram (1993) views the shift in focus from individual to institution based explanations of behaviour as partly a reaction to those prevalence studies.

There is in the 1990's a growing interest in Attention Deficit Disorders with or without Hyperactivity (AD, ADHD) in Britain. This is a psychiatric diagnosis rooted in the theories associating behavioural difficulties with neurological disfunction. This diagnosis is most often associated with treatment that involves drug and behavioural therapy. Ideus (1994) provides a sociological analysis of the cultural foundations of ADHD in which she concedes that there is evidence that ADHD is likely to be rooted in the biology of the individual, but that the 'condition' is nevertheless a socially constructed mental health disorder. She raises important issues for consideration in relation to the impact of thus labelling children and makes the following observation:

To label a 7 year old as mentally disordered believing the condition will magically disappear at the onset of puberty is a qualitative different act than labelling a 7 year old as mentally disordered for a lifetime. A passing problem of childhood attention or inability to sit still in class is more easily discarded as part of one's core identity than as an incurable, chronic 'handicapping condition', even if this latter entitles one to special services in education or in the workplace (p. 189).

Ideus (1994) introduces a note of caution about the possible consequences of a readiness to apply a particular label to an individual and thus try to provide an explanation of why a child behaves in a particular way.

Emotional and behavioural difficulties, or EBD, is the terminology used within the educational service to refer to children whose behaviour is so problematic that they are veiled as having a special educational need. If a child is then statemented as EBD the school gets extra resources to help provide for that need. Ideally, such a statement should promote a different institutional response to a child's behaviour. Cooper (1994) suggests the most useful way of viewing EBD is a flexible one. He is against defining EBD as a

problem of the individual or an environmentally produced phenomenon. He emphasises that a child's behavioural responses to certain stimuli may become part of that child and in order to modify that child's behaviour to a more appropriate form, the need for cognitive training is likely.

On the other hand, in some cases individuals said to have ADHD may respond well to drugs treatment. Other children may modify their behaviour in schools and at home.

Conclusions

There could be great advantages to parents and carers as well as schools, if parenting programmes could take place in co-operation with schools, in order to build upon and enhance the kinds of initiative schools are trying to undertake. A more consistent approach as well as better links with other agencies trying to improve the quality of education for children 'in need' should go a long way towards modifying the behaviour of the great majority of children within acceptable limits. It should then be clear that at least some children need more specialised help and facilities, at least for a time (Bennathan, 1992; Moslex, (1993). It is crucial that there are a range of responses available to address the reasons underlying displays of extreme behaviour in order to try and prevent the development of more entrenched and intractable problems. Furthermore, based on Malek's research (1993), it would seem to be important for child care agencies and mental health services to get involved in helping such youngsters and their families before they reach an age when their problems are defined in terms of the juvenile justice system, with its punitive rather than therapeutic connotations.

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The Challenge of Teaching Spoken English in Japanese Universities

Chris Heaume

Japanese universities offer their undergraduate students courses in English communication to build on the grammatical knowledge gained at middle and high school level. Foreign teachers - i.e. native speakers of English - are employed to develop the students' English communicative skills and abilities. For these teachers, the challenge is not only one of enabling students to develop oral skills, but one of far greater proportions - to marry two very different cultures, that of the student (Japanese society), and that of the teacher (western society).

Facilities are smart and modern, teachers generally have absolute curricular freedom, contractual arrangements are generous. But all is not so rosy. Whilst extremely personable and friendly, most students are reluctant to speak, appear unable to express an opinion or answer a simple question, do not expect to do homework, and feel totally at ease sleeping openly in class. An academic atmosphere of rigour, of debate, of international exchange appears far from reality. To arrive at the end of a short academic year with a level of flowing, unembarrassed and open communication, a great deal more has to be achieved than completing an EFL textbook.

As Erwin-Fukuzawa, (1996:318) explains, in the Japanese classroom the student's culture is one where maturity means good manners and a sense of social responsibility (don't question the teacher or misbehave), where self-awareness signifies acceptance of one's socially-defined role and its requirement (the teacher is right), where the student expects to absorb wisdom handed down from the teacher. In contrast, the culture that is the context of spoken English, and is the root of the Western teacher's experience and educational approach, is one where maturity is linked to an extended individual personality (different ideas are valid), where self-awareness is defined through one's relationship to others (learned largely through interaction), where the learning process is focused on the student's own development. In simple terms, the Japanese university oral English classroom comprises a cultural mismatch - the students sit in rows and wait for their teacher to impart wisdom; from where they are sitting, the roles are clear and well defined - their role is to attend and to take a written test at the end; participation and involvement in the learning process are unexpected factors in their equation. The foreign teacher, however, has other ideas: communication, he

or she believes, is interactive and interpersonal; learning is a shared endeavour between student and teacher.

Compounding these cultural differences is the place of the university in the Japanese educational system, being an institution that offers most students a period of rest between the rigors of entrance examinations and the ardour of company commitments. The membership of social clubs where students learn group responsibility and loyalty often appears to take precedent over attendance at lectures - and brass-band or baseball practice into the night certainly wins over homework.

How does the native English teacher work to bridge such cultural gaps, to enable students to embrace personal expression and open communication?

The context - Educational philosophies

The powerful tendency to perfectionism in Japanese culture recurs throughout the lives of modern Japanese. Perfecting the self means perfecting one's attitudes and, more importantly, one's performance. This emphasis has a long history in Confucian thought, which Rohlen has labelled 'spiritualism'...flowing out of a socialisation model from childhood. (Rohlen, Letendre, 1996:9)

An examination of Confucian philosophy and exploration of the spiritual underscoring of Japanese education can help us understand the challenge to the native English teacher in the Japanese university classroom.

The Language Teacher, published by the Japanese Association of Language Teachers, has recently discussed the issue of English teaching in universities aiming to answer the questions that commonly frustrate or perplex foreign teachers in the classroom.

Why don't my students have opinions?

Why don't they talk?

Why are they so willing to memorise?

Why do they bury their heads in dictionaries?

Why do exams motivate them so?

Why are they so obedient?

(Stapleton, 1995: 13)

One could further ask "Why are my students so frightened to take a risk, so scared of a mistake when they speak, so shy of personal initiatives?"

As the debate in the Jalt Journal developed, Stapleton (1996:29) cited the ideological foundations handed down to Japanese society from ancient China, setting a base line of fundamental difference between eastern and western educational philosophies and approaches. It is with Confucianism, he suggested, that many of the answers lie. While the focus of western education is rooted in Grecian and Roman philosophies of knowledge acquisition through questioning and inquiry through debate and the later introduction of learning through experience, Confucian philosophy consists of a sense of piety, loyalty and humility, with knowledge accumulated through memorisation

replacing the status of intellectual debate.

Perhaps the most overriding tenet of Confucianism is the belief that all individuals should know their place within society, Stapleton suggests. Teachers in Japanese universities are traditionally bearers of knowledge, in an exalted position, not to be questioned or challenged by students who have much lower societal status. Thus he explains the classroom silence of students and the respect accorded to teachers.

Similarly, memorisation is seen as an esteemed skill in itself, (necessary to learn over 3000 complex kanji characters) and by default engaging the student in passive approaches to education. In such a context there is little place for student-centred learning, for responsibility shared between learner and teacher, for negotiated learning programmes.

Stapleton also argues that the reliance of the Japanese system of examinations provides another key cultural difference in educational approaches. He explains how exams are a natural outgrowth of Confucian thought, promoting values such as diligence, persistence, and memory. As terminal events they also promote harmony by playing down continual classroom differences in ability, and enable students to fit into a hierarchy of learning. The effect on university students is to limit their expectations for other forms of knowledge acquisition, such as the Socratic urge to questioning assumptions, or Platonic inquiry through discussion.

Finally Stapleton refers to the Confucian ideals of education and society. *In (Confucian) education there is no discrimination* (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1979, volume 4). In a society where one is derided for being 'the nail that sticks out' (and can expect to be 'knocked back in') a philosophy that demands conformity may explain why students are unable to answer, for fear of standing out or of showing their fellow students to be less able. Consequently a student who has spent several years living in the USA or New Zealand cannot allow him or herself to show his or her English speaking ability in an English conversation class. He or she is more likely to feign ignorance, even pretending an inability to speak more than the most rudimentary English. Similarly, the Japanese philosophical resistance to streaming (English) classes by (speaking) ability leads to situations where such advanced students are placed with others who literally cannot respond to the greeting "Hello, how are you?", facing the language teacher with a vast range of ability.

Spirituality in Japanese education

The Japanese elementary school involves an experience that is intensely personal and spiritual, giving equal importance to social and intellectual development. Here the educational focus is on the person, yet within the group or "han". At elementary school, students learn to exist together, and to develop a sense of belonging alongside responsibility, social mores and expectations. For students the process

appears to be fundamentally personal and social.

Middle schools continue the theme of emphasis on the 'whole person', although introducing the student to notions of hierarchy that will become increasingly dominant in their lives. As young teenagers, students are seen to be ready for an adult-like seriousness, a controlled, purposeful course of action. Unlike the small-group format of elementary school, middle school students study in lecture-format classes with exams seen as a character-building challenge, balanced with a broad range of non academic activities, underpinned by 'lifestyle guidance' that regulates the students' use of free-time, appearance, movements, and home life, leading to healthy social, emotional and physical development, optimal academic performance, and early detection of discipline problems (Fukuzawa, 1996:295).

While students spend more time in non academic pursuits (usually group-based) than do their western counterparts, lecture classes offer minimal time for discussion of tangential topics, for eliciting student opinions, or for organising hands-on/experiential projects. Teachers are forced to adhere to texts, and no longer try to gain the attention of students - students are expected to seize whatever academic information the teacher offers. If they choose instead to sleep at their desks, it is their own responsibility. Personal responsibility, sacrifice and effort are the hallmarks of success (Letendre, 1996:289).

Japanese students therefore enter university with a clear sense that 'personality' is inculcated through well directed and challenging tasks, with emotions and energy channelled into patience, endurance, thoughtfulness and effort. This contrasts with the western notion of 'personality' as a mixture of personal tastes, idiosyncratic traits, preference, preferred styles, the ability to challenge and form opinions, and to display emotions - parts of the educational culture that drive the native-speaking English teacher.

The devaluing of the participative classroom

In addition to this contrast in educational philosophies, the place of learning in universities provides a further contrast with that in the west. While English schools and universities court the involvement of business and industry in developing partnerships to further the standard of the workforce, and the funding agencies apply increasingly penetrative monitoring and assessment processes to the teaching standards, the quality of delivery in Japanese universities comes under no such scrutiny.

The university system values, encourages, and rewards scholarship, especially publications.... Superior teaching receives no such consideration; in fact an overly zealous devotion to teaching may be interpreted as a dereliction of duty to scholarship, and a silent criticism of colleagues who are less circumspect in their devotion to teaching...The absence of institutional values in support of teaching...permits a

good deal of indifference to the classroom....(Japanese) English Department members want to establish their 'academic credentials' by divorcing themselves as much as possible from what they, and colleagues in other departments, consider to be the business of junior and senior high school teachers - teaching basic, practical language skills. (Hanson, 1987:143)

Thus the student-centred English classroom, with expectations of participation and students' responsibility for their own learning, often stands alongside Japanese-taught classes where students commonly and openly sleep, their heads on desks, or listen passively while 90 minute lectures on esoteric details of the lecturer's specialism are delivered from the lectern.

A vast cultural shift- is it possible ?

The foreign English teacher in a Japanese university therefore finds him or herself with a complex cultural and professional mismatch. While bringing to the classroom an expectation of debate, inquiry, challenge and discussion and a commitment to student-centred learning, he or she finds that the majority of their Japanese students come to classes with a background of compliance, of passive learning, of low motivation, in an institution where learning has a very different priority.

The text book focused classroom

The description above is of students with a background of quiescent, fear-based learning, with motivation routed in terminal testing events - a situation that is antithetical to most language teachers spawned by western training and experience.

Larsen-Freeman describes a learning process that is closer to one that language teachers may be wishing to achieve in their classrooms (Larson 1986). She describes a method where students want to take responsibility for their own learning, non defensively, with teacher and student valuing each other's role and integrity. The teacher is facilitator; the learner becomes increasingly independent in goal setting and achievement; direction-setting moves between the two. How can such a shift in learning-responsibility be developed in a Japanese university classroom ?

The early stages of introducing such a process include student familiarity with speaking in English, the development of ideas, the expression of personal thoughts, and the experience of a non threatening and personal classroom environment where mistakes are not penalised. Textbooks, it can be argued, have a role to play at this stage, providing a focused structure that is comfortable and familiar to the student, being not dissimilar to their previous educational experiences, and offering an opportunity to accumulate the new experiences of personal responsibility with limited risk. Peer support, limited use of correction, and the intimacy of paired or small group activity are an important part of the process. Once confidence has begun to rise, freer activities can be introduced,

immersing the student in responsibility for their own learning.

With text-focused lesson the common problem is to sustain student interest and to develop a progression of communicative skills that the student can continue to apply even after the course. The teacher is the focus, in the position of presenting the material, the interest and the energy, even evolving into a role of entertainer. Students, using their acquired skills of compliance and acquiescence combined with often remarkable sense of endeavour, are able to adapt to a book, to apply themselves to its format, and to perform the tasks adequately in the classroom. But without the prop of the book's structure the student is often speechless. It is a common experience for a teacher, when walking to the bus stop with a student who can achieve a high level of response in class, to be confronted with total lack of communicative ability on even the most mundane level. The words and the ideas practised in the classroom have come from the book, not the student, leaving a series of classroom activities that he or she has often simply performed mechanistically.

Gradual immersion in the oral English classroom workshop

Rather than text-focused lessons, classroom activity generated by students themselves can provide a learning context that is closer to the student's own reality, offering a context over which they have more control. Project-based work of this kind can be gradually introduced to equip students with the skills and confidence needed.

After an initial exposure to participative study methods used in EFL text books, students can continue a transition in the learning process, being ready to take more responsibility for creating their own learning situations. The teacher can offer small group projects that place responsibility with students, each contributing ideas and vocabulary relevant to their interests and levels. Brumfit and Gardner have both shown how motivation arises from the use which the learner makes of the learning opportunity and its perceived relevance.

When the desire to achieve the goal and favourable attitudes toward the goal are linked with the effort or the drive, then we have a motivated organism.
(Gardner 1985).

One such small group activity involves students in creating a radio programme on cassette, comprising adverts, a mini drama, news items, and DJ introductions to music..The paraphernalia surrounding the organisation of recording equipment is far outweighed by the rapid rise in motivation and the increased involvement of students, all participating according to their own interests and abilities. In addition, the focus on the group is a familiar situation to Japanese students, and one which they can easily manage. Similarly challenging projects have used video.

Another self-directed project involves pairs of

students in developing an interview with a self-selected fictitious person who the students find intriguing - a street dweller, a bar hostess, a lone round-the-world yachtswoman - including limited research on the topic area and social elements, development of character and context, and creation of expansive and penetrating questions and answers, with eventual oral presentation. Students often have initial difficulty in visualising and imagining people in a situation different to their own, although with guidance and encouragement they can achieve it. We have found it best to avoid famous people and becoming trapped in the real facts about their lives, rather than giving depth to the forces of imagination. How did, for example, an imaginary 45 year old Mr. Koji Eto become homeless? Where does he get his food? How does he feel living in a blue plastic tent on the river bank?

The rewards of student centred project work of this type are often high, with students rising to the challenge as far as their immediate knowledge will allow them, although further research (even a dip into the college library) would appear to be "troublesome", unreasonable to expect. While projects demand considerable input from the teacher at every stage to develop ideas, to offer structural English as appropriate, to cajole, to excite and to support, they can develop a life of their own, replacing textbook English and topics with living English. To ask a student "how's it going ? ' and to get into a debate on the development of their characters and ideas provides live English, but most importantly is based on the students' own ideas and even fantasies.

Traditional text books may be referred to for examples or ideas, dictionaries may be pored over, but with a contextual goal in which the students feel personally engaged, and an activity where they can express themselves from their own cultural perspective. The teacher becomes a project manager, with the students taking a self-directing role. Vastly reduced are the problems inherent in the earlier cultural clash - the inhibitions, the reluctance to shine, the fear of mistakes, the classroom silences. Instead the English communication comes from each student's selected goal, albeit within a structure set by the teacher.

Additionally, the students' motivation in exploring an area of interest that may run contrary to the tight definitions of acceptability in Japanese society (and therefore unapproachable in a whole-class situation), such as the changing role of women in marriage, the glass ceiling in employment, bullying at school, or many others, is high. Even in a society where thinking is so carefully prescribed there are those who - given the permission and a safe environment - will begin to challenge and broaden their thinking.

Project-based small group activities, however, require not only a learning environment that is conducive, but regular and sustained student attendance. The competition of the tennis club matches or training sessions, or the part time job can leave

partners high and dry for weeks. Similarly, a high commitment to a piece of work can only be sustained when students are prepared to commit themselves to managing personal project files and bringing them to lessons.

Total immersion - the class room as a workshop

A programme more radical for the Japanese university situation places the students in full control of their learning, creating a workshop from the rows of individual desks of the language classroom. The Talk Learning System removes the teacher completely from the limelight, providing students with a range of resources (cards and cassettes based on conversation, listening or vocabulary) from which they can select according to their individual or group learning goal (or their whim on that day), and with a self-assessment system that enables them to record and acknowledge progress.

One teacher who has replaced conventional book based learning with the Talk Learning System explained how he wanted to break from a situation where students went through the motions of learning without the application that could bring their language to life. He wanted to place the initiative with the students, to place them in a learning process where they could not sit back and say 'finished' at the end of a book-based exercise, but were inspired to take it further. He wanted to move from the position of 'entertainer' to one of facilitator.

In this teacher's classrooms, the System has worked for some students, enabling self-selected goals and self directed learning and evaluation, discouraging rote, encouraging imagination and illuminating expression. It has therefore freed him to support them and to offer himself as the native-speaking resource. Further, it has divided the students naturally into those who can cope with self-directed learning, and those who are unable to move away from a teacher-led situation, freeing him to spend additional time coaxing such students. He feels that 10% cannot cope at all, but are likely to flounder on lack of motivation whatever the teaching culture or method.

This shift in approaches to learning and teaching has essentially demanded that this teacher be prepared to give up the traditional role of controller in the classroom, to step aside from power, from being the 'giver of knowledge', and has led to respect between the students and teacher, and of the students for themselves. The students who have successfully and enthusiastically become involved in the programme are, he feels, more able to use their English with confidence and fluency outside of the classroom situation.

Conclusion

Foreign teachers in Japanese university classrooms can find themselves in enviable positions, with freedom to develop their own programmes, non-confrontational students, and clean, well equipped facilities. Yet the

frustrations arising from the vastly differing, even conflicting, expectations of the learning experience can lead to exhausting and stressful conditions - a feeling of energy pouring into a vast dark hole. Students can sit through class after class, deploying the learning skills from their school-based education of regurgitation, of pleasing the teacher through mechanical completion of the task, only to finish the course little more able to converse or express themselves than at the start.

It is, however, the experience of some teachers that at least some students will respond (maybe with initial bewilderment, but progressively with enthusiasm and excitement) to a self-centred learning experience where they are enabled to share control of their learning, import their own experiences into the learning situation, raise their personal motivation through the acknowledgement of their own culture and values, and consequently develop sustainable English conversational skills.

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Teaching Resources

The Talk Learning System. Creative Services International Co. Ltd.. Uji City, Japan.

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Young Children’s images of “The Enemy”: an exploration into mental mapping **Part Two**

Ian Lister (UK) and Sevasti Paidá (Greece)

Introduction

The first part of our research report appeared in *NEW ERA IN EDUCATION*, Volume 78 Number 3, December 1997. It explained the intellectual, geographical and research contexts of the project: in particular, how it was informed by related work in political socialisation, moral education and peace studies; how field work was conducted in two national locations: Greece - Thessaloniki and the island of Chios - and York, England; and how an aim of the research was to find ways to overcome prejudice against, and stereotyping of, other people.

Young children - aged 5 to 9 - were interviewed in groups and asked the following questions:

1. Are there any children different from you?
2. What is an enemy?
3. What does an enemy do?
4. Have you got an enemy?
5. Who protects you from the enemy?
6. How do you know about the enemy?

The fieldwork in Greece revealed six categories of images of the enemy: (1) The Soldier (the most common); (2) Criminals (very common); (3) Acquaintances (also very common); (4) Enemies from comics (rare); 5. Animals, such as lions, snakes and bulls (rare); and (6) Enemies of nature - who “burn the forest” and “kill animals”(rare).

The most striking finding was the strength of “the Turks” as enemy image Number One. The children spoke of “the Turks” as a single category. Giorgos, a five-year old boy from Chios summed this up. When asked: “Could you please draw me an enemy?” he replied. “Do you mean a Turk?” The children said that the Turks “kill the Greeks”; “will come and make war on us”, because “they want to conquer the whole of

Greece”. They “will kill our parents and we will be their slaves”. The conflicts through the centuries, including the “fall” of Constantinople in 1453, and the current Cyprus dispute, had contributed to making “the Turks” the enemy in the children’s minds and to accepting war as a normal condition. The Turks were seen as the hereditary foe. Other “Soldier enemies” mentioned included the Romans, the Germans and the Italians. The Romans came from their history teaching and the Germans and the Italians came from grandparents’ memories of World War Two (an interesting example of the family’s contribution to political socialisation - in this case jumping a generation).

The Criminal as enemy revealed children assuming that criminals rob, rape, kill and torture, and identify as out-groups - in particular, Albanians and Gypsies as criminals.

The Acquaintance as enemy included class mates (bullying, teasing, name calling - “They call me cockroach”) and parents (“My mum, when she beats me”).

Enemies from comics, Animals as enemies, and Enemies from nature were mentioned by only 6%, 5% and 5% of the sample (n= 150) respectively. Like many other images of the enemy they combined elements of fact, fiction and fantasy. Although the mental maps showed much evidence of stereotyping and xenophobia, there was also evidence of a notion of common humanity (“We are all humans”) and of empathy for children with special needs (“who don’t understand as many things as we do”).

The York sample

The aim of the York research was to compare the images of the enemy of young children in a different

context with those of the Greek samples. York children live in a place which has a long history - The history of York is the history of England" (King George V) - and which was conquered by the Romans, the Vikings and the Normans, and which was bombed by Germans in World War Two. Close by are the battlefields of Fulford (1066), Stamford Bridge (1066) and Marston Moor (1644). York was the scene of the persecution, and consequent mass suicide, of the Jewish population during the Middle Ages (1190). Until recently York was a garrison town, but now it is facing the challenges of "the peace dividend". In history England had many national enemies - including the French, the Spanish and the Dutch - and Britain (after 1707) had many national enemies, including the French (again), the Germans and the Japanese. However, since the end of the Cold War (c.1990), and the removal of the Berlin Wall and the collapse of the Soviet Union, Britain has lived in a world without a national enemy. The children in our sample, made up of 21 nine-year-olds in two schools have hardly experienced war in their lives. They were very young during the time of the Gulf War (August 1990 to February 1991) and too young to "see" that post modern war "live" on television.

The York children produced the same three main categories of "the enemy" as the Greek children, but in a different order of frequency. The Acquaintance as enemy was the most common, with all 21 children citing it. The Soldier as enemy was cited by 10 children. The Criminal as enemy was cited by 6 children.

The Soldier as enemy, when spoken of in the present tense, were soldiers fighting in other countries, in places far away from Britain:

The enemies do nasty things to people, say try to kill them ... different countries aren't fond of other countries ... not in Britain. In other countries.

(Lawrence)

The children referred to the Gulf War, and the wars in the former Yugoslavia and in Ruanda.

Some saw "the enemy" as a *national* enemy:

Enemy is a country who can fight your country.

(Daniel)

When referring to their country the York children called it both "England" and "Britain", interchangeably. They mentioned a number of national enemies, including the Romans, the Saxons, the Vikings, the Spanish and the Germans:

The 'Vikings once landed on our land and the Saxons. Cause they thought it was rich land.

(Daniel)

Very good for the crops.

(Tom)

A girl gave another account of these enemies:

In school we learn things about the Romans and the Vikings. Well, they 're not really enemies but they were. The Vikings took over a lot of land and things.

(Jennifer)

Another pupil, Andrew, cited a further enemy - the Spanish:

They didn't try to attack us. We tried to attack them.

(Tom)

No. They were all around England, and we forced them away,

(Daniel)

York children seemed to identify themselves with whoever was in York before the others - Romans, Saxons, Vikings - came. They did not see any of these as their ancestors. School history and history books had given them these "enemies". They did not seem to dislike any of these enemies. (Perhaps the image of "the Vikings" has improved. In the past they usually got a bad press, having upset the Christian chroniclers, who were the spin doctors of their time. York now has a famous "Viking Museum", which presents the Vikings as people, and the Viking Kingdom, of which York - as "Jorvik" - was the capital, as a culture and a civilisation). The York children's accounts here, though, provoke the general observation that when "foreign" people are mentioned in English/British history books it is usually as enemies in a time of war. (The Germans entered British history books in 1914, and the Japanese entered in 1941).

York children gave accounts of World War Two involving Germany and "the Germans" as enemies:

Enemy is Germany. They fought us once. They tried to get our country. We won the war.

(Daniel)

You don't like enemies and you try to fight against them ... like in a war, like Germany versus England - Hitler. He was an enemy to England. I hate him.

(Toby)

The Germans, like the other enemies cited, were not viewed as a present threat. The Saxons, the Vikings and the Spanish had "all died" (Tom) and the Germans who fought against England/Britain in World War Two were "dead now" (Toby). When asked to draw an enemy one York boy drew a picture of Hitler. Hitler, who looked like a man but not like Hitler, was in an Adidas track-suit, so the foreigner was clothed in the familiar.

York children, like the Greek children, gave the main motivation of the Soldier as enemy as "wanting to take our land" (which is rich) - that is, the enemy's military conflict is a form of armed robbery. They attack and we defend. They start wars and we finish them. The York children had no "hereditary foe", unlike the Greek children who saw "the Turks" as the enemy in the past, in the present and in the future. Given the frequency of Second World War films on television, particularly during the religious holiday periods of Christmas and Easter, it is surprising that the York children did not more forcefully cite "the Germans" as "the enemy". Twenty-five years ago village children in the York area played "English against the Germans" rather than "Cowboys and Indians".

It is striking that for the York children the Enemy as Acquaintance was their Number One category, with all children citing it. This is an enemy who is someone known to you, and from whom you suffered physical aggression and/or direct verbal aggression and/or indirect verbal aggression (such as, rumour mongering and giving away secrets). There is a certain realism with this category as children are statistically much more likely to be harmed by someone they know than by strangers (particularly strangers resident in other countries). The children cited instances of bullying:

Sometimes two people get more people and gang up on someone. (Jennifer)

Enemies are big bullies ... (Alex)

A lot of people pick on somebody because they have a different colour skin or something. (Sally)

A girl in our class gets picked on a lot. She's of a different religion. (Jennifer)

Some children gave examples of direct verbal aggression, such as "calling each other names." (Hannah).

There 's these three girls who keep on being nasty to us. (Hannah)

We will be nasty to them. They will think we are the baddies and they are the goodies. (Katie)

We think we are the goodies and they are the baddies. We are right, because they started calling us names first. (Hannah)

Examples of indirect verbal aggression were given by boys as well as girls, although most of the related literature suggests that it is more commonly practised by girls than by boys. To keep this in proportion we might reflect that gossip, rumours and the disclosure of secrets is the daily fare of much of the press, while gossip is a commonplace of village, office, institutional and sub-group life.

Some children defined criminals as enemies people who were stealing things, carrying out armed robbery or committing murder.

Murderers are enemies, and the strangers. (Daniel)

The citing "murderer" and "stranger", in one breath, is striking here.

Some York children attributed similar motives to robbers as those attributed by the Greek children poverty and a lust for money.

Some York children were close to crime, being aware of young children who were already committing minor offences and who might move on to more serious kinds of crime.

When children are playing they think it's funny to smash a window ... but say they smash the window and they, like, carry on.

They think it was funny and they get away with it. They start, like, robbing cars, or something, and get into bigger things. (Myles)

It starts by liffle and gets bigger and bigger; and then leads to crime. (Thomas)

Some children claimed that they had experience of crime taking place in their neighbourhood.

This police car came down our street and it was going to this shop because this person robbed it with a knife. (Thomas)

For some of the York children crime was not viewed as something distant from their own lives or their locality. They saw crime as something which children as well as adults were involved in, and as something which happened where they lived. In contrast, many Greek children viewed crime as something carried out by adults, and as something brought into Greece by foreigners.

Reflections and Recommendations

This section, firstly, reflects on the findings of the field research in Greece and England and, secondly, makes some recommendations for "concerned educators", attempting to answer the question: when we know about young children's images of the enemy, and the mental map is drawn for us, what could, and should, we do?

Reflections

(1) The first reflection is that young children do have mental images of enemies - mainly of Soldiers, Acquaintances and Criminals - and they do have a lot of disjointed and jumbled information about the social and political worlds. It can not be a question of preserving some kind of innocence. It is a question of what we do, knowing what they know and don't know, what they feel and what they fear

(2) The second reflection is that children seem to have collected a menagerie of national enemies - from history, from history books, from children's books and from television; from parents and grandparents; and, particularly in Greece, from the folk culture. These have generally presented the national enemy in mass form - such as "the Turks" and "the Germans" - and attributed to the dehumanised enemy negative and evil characteristics. (There are no "good Turks" and there were no "good Germans").

(3) Children had no problem in identifying themselves as part of a national group - "us". The Greek children saw themselves as Greeks and the York children saw themselves as English/British.

(4) Most of the views expressed by the children are commonly expressed by adults, and most would have been learned from adults - that is, the children are repeating statements made by adults. Even the hopefully universalistic statement, made by a nine year-old boy in Chios, that: "We are all humans" may observation). But, perhaps, some repetitions are more

be a repetition (rather than a high-level, moral observation). But, perhaps, some repetitions are more welcome than others.

(5) There is ample evidence of stereotyping in the children's statements and of prejudice about foreigners and out-groups. A question is: Does it matter? It may matter for two main reasons. First, it is both morally and intellectually better if judgements are based on evidence, reasoning and a notion of truth. Second, while prejudice and stereotypes may not lead to action - there is a gap between what people believe and what people do - in times of social and international peace, in times of social and international stress, they can be addressed and inflamed by demagogues. The history of anti-Semitism in Europe, in our own time, is one such example, and the Cultural Revolution in China - another instance of collective madness - is a second example. In the dark night of the human soul which included the Wannsee Conference and Auschwitz, Hamburg and Dresden, Hiroshima and Nagasaki, it was those who saw beyond stereotypes and the depersonalization of humanity who performed acts of hope.

(6) It would be a mistake to be beguiled by the naive charm of some of the statements of young children, and it would be a mistake to overestimate our ability to build a better world through young children. Young children live in the real world, as well as in fantasy worlds. They have little power and limited knowledge. However, we can help them to construct world pictures and develop guidelines for conduct which are based, not on fears, fantasies and despair, but on facts, realities and hope.

Recommendations

(1) People have the potential to become friends as well as enemies. As one Greek girl said: "A friend can become an enemy, and an enemy may become a friend." In life there are enemies and there are friends. It is important to make and keep friends. It makes sense to be initially wary of strangers (for some adults do harm children) but it is not correct to assume that all strangers and all foreigners are enemies.

(2) We can learn some wisdom from the young children when they point out that most national enemies are not enemies *now*. In Europe we have a European *Union*, and citizens of the member states are citizens of Europe as well as citizens of their own country. Children, as they develop, should be encouraged to feel that they are part of greater groups and just as the school mediates between the family and the wider society, so it should educate young people both for the nation and beyond the nation.

(3) We can work in classrooms with techniques of conflict resolution and of making children aware of ways of conflict resolution other than by naked power. The teachers' handbooks produced by global educators, such as David Hicks, Graham Pike and David Selby, contain many appropriate classroom exercises.

(4) Schools can work with conflict resolution within their own walls. Most schools now have anti-bullying codes (where rule number one usually is: "Don't bully the bully"). Some children in our study saw teachers as protectors.

(5) We can help children to overcome fears based on fantasies - lions in the streets of Thessaloniki - and xenophobia - fear of foreigners, in general, which has as little foundation as fear of flying. Other peoples need to be presented as human beings, who are born, live, love and die, like the rest of us. We need to have some positive stories about other people. German students help at one of the York schools in our sample and they present themselves as people, first, and as Germans, later. The school has help from other groups, including Chinese.

(6) Staff and students of the University of Thessaloniki, Greece, have during recent years established a communication network with staff and students of universities in Istanbul, Turkey, and staff and student exchange visits will take place. Joint and parallel research programmes, to challenge stereotyping and to encourage young people to think critically, are being developed.

Postscript

Our first report ended with two grand questions. The first question was:

Since our mental maps reveal potentialities for both xenophobia and feelings for common humanity, we have to ask: What should educators do about it? Educators know that they must act since to do nothing in our divided world is to prevaricate and to evade important action.

We have tried to address that question in this paper.

The second question was:

What would the findings look like if other young children, in different parts of the world, were asked our questions?

Our York sample is a contribution to an answer to this question. We are currently trying the questions with a sample of school pupils in Norway and in Taiwan. We would like to try the questions in Turkey and in Germany.

Our research draws the mental maps which tell teachers more about what young children know and think about others. We have revealed some of the sources of their knowledge and their thoughts. Our most important question, though, is: What, then, knowing what we now know, should concerned educators do?

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***Thank You,
Elizabeth Wardle***

You did not want the contents of your letter to be published, but I would like to note your support for my editorial in the last issue of *New Era in Education*, and share the following words you wrote with the readers:

The prime urgency in education is to allow plenty of time for children to sort out their problems co-operatively, rather than pushing the competitive pursuit of 'standards'. There is simply no way to ameliorate the present mess we're making throughout the world, but we could at least try to make people aware of the philosophical shift needed from the pursuit of excessive wealth (moneywise) at each other's expense to preparing to build peace and comfort fairly shared.

Editor.

40th INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP PRELIMINARY ANNOUNCEMENT

**LAUNCESTON, TASMANIA
30th DECEMBER 1998 - 4th JANUARY 1999**

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**YOU ARE INVITED TO PARTICIPATE AND HELP US DEVELOP
EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES FOR THE NEW CENTURY**

40th International Conference

PROVISIONAL PROGRAMME

December 29

World Education Fellowship International Council Meeting

December 30

- a) Welcome by WEF International President (Professor Shinjo Okuda)
- b) Professor Colin Power (Assistant Director, Unesco):
"Concept of a better world in cross cultural perspective."
- c) Professor Edward de Bono: *"The thinking that has brought us to this stage cannot carry us beyond it."*
- d) Dr. Marianne Heiberg (Norwegian Institute of International Affairs, Oslo and now acting Director UN Relief and Work Agency for Refugees - Jerusalem) *"Practical exemplars of the need for that new thinking."*

December 31

- a) Professor Marilyn McMeniman (Dean of Education, Griffith University):
"Educating for a better world: an overview."
- b) *Imaginative ways of thinking and knowing*: practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals. Introduced and chaired by Professor Richard Bawden (University of Western Sydney).

January 2

Uniquely Australian Cultural Holiday Programme!

January 2, 3, 4

- *Moral responsibility and concern for the common good*: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals. Introduced and chaired by Professor Brian Hill (Murdoch University).
- *Responsibility for the global environment*: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals. Introduced and chaired by Professor David Susuki.
This follows up WEF 30th Conference in Kuching 1996.
Care and compassion for others: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals.
The conference will conclude late afternoon January 4th.

January 5

WEF Australian Council Day.

Extraordinary Conference of Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)

On 21 November 1997, UNESCO organized in Paris an extraordinary conference of non-governmental organizations like WEF which maintain official relations with the UNESCO. I attended the conference as WEF's representative. The conference was convened by the Director-General in order to close formally the proceedings of UNESCO's 25th Internal Conference of NGOs which was held from 17-21 June 1996 at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris, and to allow the NGO community to take decisions on the new working arrangements for the International Conference of NGOs as well as to conduct the necessary elections for the setting up of the new NGO-UNESCO Liaison Committee.

With the approval of the Director General, the international non-governmental organizations maintaining formal relations with UNESCO may hold a conference every two years to review the state of co-operation with UNESCO, conducting collective consultations on the main lines of UNESCO's programme and facilitating co-operation between organizations having common interests. This global forum will enable the Director-General to gather advice from international non-governmental organizations that are UNESCO's partners in the priority of its programme.

The participants of the Extraordinary Conference have elected members for the NGO-UNESCO Liaison Committee. The main role of this committee will be technical co-ordination of the conduct of activities carried out jointly with the UNESCO Secretariat according to the resolutions adopted by the International Conference of NGOs.

I notified the Director of UNESCO's Division of Relations with International Organizations that WEF would be in attendance at the extraordinary conference and that our organization was interested in the work of the Liaison Committee. However, because WEF was placed not long ago in operational (and not formal) relations with UNESCO, our organization was not able to present its candidature for election to the Liaison Committee but we will be able to co-operate in preparation for future international NGO conferences.

Immediately after the close of the Extraordinary Conference, NGO representatives proceeded with the establishment of a provisional NGO Council and the designation of representatives of this Council to the NGO Liaison Committee. I notified the 25th NGO

Conference of WEF's candidature to the provisional Council. On 21 November the assembly approved the establishment of the Council and WEF is one of its 45 members. The provisional Council, domiciled in UNESCO in the NGO Secretariat, will begin exchanges of information and experience on questions relating to UNESCO's programmes and on the practical aspects of UNESCO-NGO co-operation. It will organize its first plenary meeting in order to contribute to the preparation of the NGO Conference scheduled in 1998.

All the discussions in both meetings concerned organizational matters and not content. I think that it has possibly benefited WEF (and UNESCO) that we participated in the meetings but I am not quite sure what it will contribute to our work and organization in the future. I think we should reflect on what answers to give to questions like "For what purpose do we want to co-operate with and within UNESCO?" and "What are our resources to realize what we want?"

*Peter van Stapelle
WEF Rep to UNESCO.*

Report by the Japan Section

WEF Japan Section preparing for the 70th Anniversary

The WEF Japan Section was established in 1930 as a branch of New Education Fellowship (NEF) and will celebrated its 70th anniversary in the year 2000. Four years ago, in 1994, the 37th meeting of WEF International Conference was held in Tokyo with close to 400 people attending from Japan and overseas to enjoy an enthusiastic international council and exchange.

Last year, in 1997, the WEF Japan Section General Meeting was held in Tokyo on November 16 as International Education Forum under the theme "Education for the society where people live together". The meeting consisted of basic lectures, research presentations, symposia, etc., with more than 70 eager participants.

The Japan Section is now promoting an educational reform toward the 21st Century and the General Meeting is organized accordingly every year. On the basis of these accomplishments we are planning the programme of events for our Section's 70 anniversary.

As 1997 was the year of re-election for officials,

President, Vice Presidents, Directors and Auditor were elected. Prof. Shinjo Okuda, the WEF President, was re-elected President of the Japan Section, and several young members were newly elected in order to stimulate the activities of the Section. These officials will be assigned their duties through to the end of March 2001.

Some regulations for the WEF Japan Section were revised during the 1997 General Meeting. One of the changes related to WEF was the term “The World Education Fellowship *Japan Section*”, which was originally called “*Japanese Section*”.

Additionally, it is our pleasure to report that we are now able to locate at the Secretariat not only the Secretary General but Deputy Secretary General and some staff members as well:

Vice-Presidents:

Prof. Mitsuo Kaneko (re-elected) and
Prof. Yuri Fujii (re-elected).

Secretary General:

Prof. Hiroshi Iwama (re-elected).

Accountant:

Mr. Minoru Saito (new) and
Assoc. Prof. Hiroshi Osawa (new).

Chief Editor:

Prof. Tetsunari Ishibashi (re-elected).

Assistant Editor:

Mr. Michiya Sugiyama (new).

Research Director:

Assoc Prof. Mikio Kikuri (new).

Deputy Research Director:

Assist Prof. Hiroyuki Sakuma.

Youth Director:

Mr. Katsuhiko Matsuyama (new).

Deputy Youth Director:

Mr. Takuya Tanaka (new)

Youth Group’s Global Activities Promoted

Youth Group of Japan Section is actively operating its duties which include not only research presentation, free discussions and information exchange, but the issuance of newsletters as well. Overseas educational background and research reports are major articles reported in their newsletters. Youth Group exchange opinions with overseas members by e-mail. They are also planning activities for the coming international meeting in Australia. It is no exaggeration to say that Youth Group is promoting international exchange with the future banner bearers of WEF and thus contributing to globalization and expanding friendship circles.

Bulletins and meetings

We have the following bulletins and meetings annually:

Two Bulletins (New World of Education)

Four Japan Section reports

One National Conference (International Education forum and General Meeting)

Five study meetings

Four study presentations by Youth group

Two Newsletters by Youth Group

A Sacred Darkness

*Stars are twinkling in the Darkness,
a Sacred Darkness in the Universe.*

*Sorrowful, painful, and shameful experiences
in our lives are melt down into Darkness.*

*Separation, desperation, And destruction
of human history are healed up
in the breast of the Darkness.*

*Stars are sparkling in the Darkness,
a Sacred Darkness of Eternity.*

Dr. Hiroshi Iwama

OPEN LETTER TO THE GOVERNMENT

May we begin by introducing ourselves.

The World Education Fellowship, which was founded in 1921, is an international non-partisan organisation, whose members have a common interest in education at all levels.

As members of the Great Britain Section of the Fellowship we greatly applaud the priority given to education by the present government. We welcome its concern for nursery education, the proposed reduction of class sizes in primary schools, the attack on educational disadvantage, the emphasis on quality and standards, the recognition of the role of parents and the importance of life-long education. We give wholehearted support to those objectives and wish the Government well in its efforts to achieve them.

May we at the same time draw attention to certain aspects of current policies which, in our considered opinion, endanger some of the very worthy objectives we mentioned earlier.

The Raising of Standards

We welcome the Government's concern for excellence, but there are many kinds of excellence. Children's progress should not be judged exclusively in terms of intellectual improvement. Their emotional, social, moral and physical development is no less crucial. For that matter, assessment is only credible if it takes factors such as home, school and community environment into consideration. The Government's commitment to the raising of standards should not be limited to the acquisition of basic skills, but should extend to developing children's fullest potential to lead worthwhile lives and to be useful members of the community. Undue emphasis on one aspect is highly distorting,

While there is a place for subject divisions, general education should be given a status comparable to that enjoyed by subject learning. Young people should be introduced to broader issues that profoundly affect the future of mankind, such as the preservation of the natural world, population control, help for impoverished nations and the elimination of war. Nor should such general education be exempt from assessment.

Another point we wish to make refers to claims that children can reach the same standard by a particular age. Such claims cannot be substantiated. Thinking of this kind leads to a reductionist policy, which in the long run fossilises the educational system. Countries that have pursued it, such as Australia, have long since seen the futility of it.

Raising standards is essentially a matter of motivation. While competition within schools and between schools may have a part to play, it should be a comparatively minor part. There are more intrinsic kinds of motivation for extending achievement. Many illiterates among recruits for the Second World War were rescued from their predicament by the desire to read for themselves the letters they received from home and to be able to write back. At the school level, slow learners can make progress, given the right kind of motivation, encouragement and learning experiences at which they can succeed. Sole reliance on class teaching is likely to be ineffective. Imaginative teaching at all levels, teaching that builds on the interests of young people, that gives them confidence and highlights success rather than failure, such teaching leads to effective learning, to self respect and respect for others. Making a fetish of competition, league tables and the like rubs in failure and inadequacy and is likely to be counterproductive.

The Morale of Teachers

Teachers at all levels have been expected to deal with unprecedented change over the past twenty years. In return for little thanks, they have been doing a magnificent job in spite of enormous difficulties. Sadly they are being put into a straitjacket, rigid subject divisions and the constant encroachment of tests and examinations being in direct contradiction to what they know of the development needs particularly of young children. Required to toe a narrow line, many experienced teachers may write their aims and objectives as expected of them, but have grave reservations. They are being put into a dishonest position which is lowering their morale and their professional integrity. On top of that, constant criticism is levelled at the teaching profession. No wonder many are leaving the profession in despair and sheer fatigue. The effect on schools being "rubbished" must be equally devastating.

Education in the Wider Community

While welcoming the Government's recognition of the role of parents, their involvement should not be confined to allowing them a say in the selection of a particular school. Joint involvement in issues such as bullying and racism, discussing pupil's progress with understanding of the home situation, explaining educational practice, examining broader objectives for education and attempting to make the school environmentally sustainable and an exciting, creative and safe place are some examples of possible joint involvement. Greater co-operation between teachers, parents, pupils and governors could revitalise the whole ethos of the school. Beyond that, schools can fulfil the role of a local community centre with various activities taking place after school and at weekends, including adult education classes and youth-, sports- and interest-clubs. Thus schools could be welcoming centres where local people feel comfortable and at home.

Life-long Learning

While the need for nursery education is rightly becoming recognised, and while primary, secondary, further and higher education, though underfunded, are rightly given prominence, adult education is rapidly becoming the Cinderella of education. This is all the more astounding, not only because the need for constructive use of leisure is becoming increasingly apparent, but because the longer life-span and consequent extended period of retirement should make for greatly added provision of educational facilities for continuing education.

We support the government's commitment to life-long learning but wish to emphasise that this should not just be employment related. While it is important that young people are provided with the skills necessary to gain jobs, and older workers are enabled to update their skills to retain employment, there should be provision for wider educational opportunities throughout life. It is important, we feel, that vocational qualifications should be more than "tick sheets" and should make for genuine development of the individual. Pensioners and many people with mobility problems could find their lives enriched by computer skills and use of the Internet. Indeed, every encouragement should be given to all who discover the need for additional education later in life.

Conclusion

Whilst we have expressed particular concern over certain aspects of current policy, we remain heartened that we have a government that genuinely cares about education. The basic values underpinning the Government being what they are, we are confident that policies will increasingly be put into place to ensure that education in this country will live up to these values.

David Turner. Chair WEF (GB)

Reflections on Personal Education: The Selective System

Polly Chan

I received my primary and secondary education in Hong Kong from late 60s to late 70s. After a career break, I entered the Open University of Hong Kong in mid 90s before I came to UK to start a BA degree last year.

The highly competitive public examinations took place at the end of my primary and secondary schooling. This had the most disadvantageous impact on my overall education. My education experience was not smooth and resulted in a poor performance. Similar to other developing societies, due to limited funding, the primary education expansion in Hong Kong took priority and proportionately much less was spent on secondary and tertiary education. According to official figures, the enrolment rates for primary education were all over 100% while the rates in secondary schools and tertiary education were 29% and 5% respectively in 1965. During that time two public examinations acted as selective agents. They were the Secondary School entrance Examination (SSEE) and Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examinations (HKSCCEE). The former was held from 1962 to 1977 for primary six leavers to determine whether they could proceed to secondary school whereas the latter was held for access to further education for form 5 secondary school leavers. The results of these two examinations significantly determined one's further education and future career opportunity in society. Pupils suffered from a highly competitive education atmosphere. This allowed the public demand for secondary education to be satisfied initially by private suppliers. During that time, not only were the private schools predominant but the private family tutoring aimed to cope with the syllabus of the public examinations was very popular among those pupils whose parents were able to afford it.

Unfortunately, my primary and secondary schooling was exposed to such an adverse environment, during which time the highly competitive pressure among pupils reached a peak, that as a new immigrant to Hong Kong I was unable to catch up with the standard of the national curriculum and therefore unable to enter the public Secondary School Entrance Examination. Also, as my parents were not able to afford a private tutor to help me with the preparation for the public examination, my schooling was terminated after primary six and I became part of an underage work force in factories. After some years, as the economy grew and my family's income improved, I returned to secondary school and my schooling continued through access to one of the profit-making private secondary schools. The government had little interest in

controlling the quality of private secondary schools and most of them had bad quality teaching and an adverse environment. All these factors, together with the design of the examination-driven curriculum, paved the way for my unsatisfactory result in another public examination, the HKSCCEE which meant not only a block to tertiary education but also restrictions on my career opportunities.

With regard to the education process, the patterns of teaching and learning have been designed by and have reinforced the competitive ethos. Pupils were encouraged to remember information and the key to success was diligence. In general, parents and pupils believed that sufficient hard work was the only way to success. On the whole schools were based on "chalk and-talk" teaching and rote learning. The role of education can also be seen to have been supportive of the existence of a "strong state". It appeared to act as an explicit agent for political socialism and promoted a set of common values which embodied the national identity of the colony of Hong Kong. It was a means of maintaining the economic life of the country by helping to provide the right kinds of workers equipped with the right kind of qualifications, abilities and attitudes.

However, this aim is at odds with pupil-centred aims which expand pupil's horizons. An economy-centred education restricts expectations and the student fits as neatly as possible into an occupational role. Pupil centre education promotes reflectiveness but for the economy what is needed is obedience to authority. An economically oriented education system tends to support rote learning where pupils cannot become planners of their own lives.

Like other developing countries, the public examinations in Hong Kong were offered at the end of both primary and secondary education. They were developed and administered centrally at the national level based on a common syllabus. Public examinations were shaped to determine the level of educational achievement of the examinees. Public examinations are used as selection tools for education and employment. This means that pupils who fail in the examinations are unable to progress to higher education as well as having very limited career opportunities. The examinations tend to control the flow of students from primary to secondary education and from secondary to higher education. In general, employers tend to prefer students who have a better examination performance. It has been perceived that performance in public examinations is considered a fair and impartial means of allocation of scarce educational resources.

However, my questions are: On what grounds should the use of public examinations for selection purposes penalise those students who come from poor schools with an unsatisfactory performance in the examinations? Can the result in examinations reflect their academic ability? Within the increased competition in socio-economic life which brings with it new selection criteria, is it fair to consider a student incapable by only judging examination performance?

To evaluate the elitist education system, from the view of pupils, those who failed in the public examination not only had a limited job opportunity in society but also lost their self-esteem. Higher levels of education still provided the most readily available vehicle of upward socio-economic mobility. Therefore to a certain extent the elitist education system perpetuates the inequality and division of social class in the society.

My view is that elitist education should not be the only effective way to reinforce the control of state and enhance the economic development. The conventional elitist education system should not be encouraged. The new version of basic education for all adopted by the World Conference on Education held in Thailand in 1990 emphasises the need to discourage the conventional elitist education. It stipulates that learners

should be allowed to reach their full potential. Further on this point, a Round Table on Multidimensionality Education held in Lisbon, Portugal in May 1991 states:

Education for all is education for development... enabling the maximum number of pupils to rise to the top. But evaluations in accordance with traditional criteria serve mainly to identify the most promising pupils; it discourages the weakest ones and is an obstacle to the proclaimed aspiration of enabling all pupils to develop their particular talents to the full. In developing countries, the rejection by the education system of very many people who possess real skills and abilities which could be put to use in society is a tremendous waste of resources needed for an economic and social development. The years spent in school by such young people without achieving any result represent the loss of a costly individual and public investment. The school system cannot simply reject those who fail to meet the criteria which it has set. It must find ways of enabling everyone to fit into socio economic life.

(UNESCO and Ministry of Education of Portugal 91)

Polly Siu Kuen Chan is a mature student seeking a BA in Education.

Experiencing Double Disadvantage - Reflections on my Early Education

Yasmena Waris

As an Asian pupil of Pakistani parents, my pre-school years were what one may regard as a typical pre-school education motivated through play and activities. Nursery education has a fundamental importance as it enables individuals to develop social and emotional skills at their own pace and the nursery is often seen as the key bridge between the unrestrained life of play and the much more formal work of the classroom.

In 1985, at the age of three years, I was diagnosed as partially-hearing and this had an impact on the educational experience that followed. When the time came to move to a local primary school difficulties arose with regard to language and, interestingly enough, with social development too. In my case, as with most Asian children, my first language was not English which made it difficult to benefit fully from school experiences as children are not always given the support they need to maintain communication skills which so many English people take for granted. It also means that these children have to work extra hard to grasp the methods of learning how to read and write and for many this can be a struggle.

From personal experience of being a hearing-impaired pupil and a second language learner, the

concept of learning is made even more difficult. It is possible that while some people may take into account that both factors affect experience in school, others may overlook one and ignore the prospects of a second language learner, therefore it is vitally important that such issues are raised by professionals, teachers and educational psychologists. The very nature of deafness in a second language learner means that many of us find it a frustrating and nerve-racking experience to attend school and not really understand what is actually happening within the school environment. Most children will withdraw into themselves due to frustration, isolation or shyness, or even a combination of all three. It is of great importance to arrange special educational provision as soon as possible and develop a supportive network consisting of child, parents, teachers and Local Education Authority.

It was not until the 1960s and 1970s that a positive attitude was expressed in terms of delivering education for special needs, usually within the confinements of a small unit or by arranging regular visits from outside resources. Students with disabilities in mainstream schools are on the increase with a large proportion of hearing-impaired children being educated in mainstream classes. Mainstream schools with a

partially-hearing unit have the added advantage of pupils being among those who have normal hearing. Both my primary schools had these facilities and I consider this to be a very valuable experience as it produced adequate support in mainstream classes as well as regular one-to-one sessions.

From a cross-cultural point of view, many Asians are being over-represented in special education. Local Authorities often adopt a view that ethnic minority children have a special need but when it comes to those persons having a disability, does it mean that both groups should be classified as having a special need? The opinion I hold is that these are two very different categories and it is important to establish where such people stand and not to disadvantage them by putting them into 'one big group'. There is an alternative when it comes to providing special education for these people and it has been suggested that good bilingual policies, organised by bilingual professionals, should provide the basic framework for education. The main advantage of this is that not only does it enable an individual to become aware of how English is used in different circumstances, but also prepares them for a long-term career.

The highlight of my education experience was the six years I spent in a secondary modern school. It was a non selective school which meant that pupils were accepted regardless of ability and I was very fortunate that the school had a very active learning support team and was well known for its support and provision in assisting an individual's learning programme. One of the most difficult aspects of education is the National

Tests. The 11 + in particular is not always regarded favourably and concern has been expressed about the anxiety created in children by having to sit formal examinations. When I took my 12+ no-one expected me to pass and when I failed it was a question of finding a suitable school which took my special needs into account. Had I known from an early age that my future would depend on these exams and had I been given appropriate support in my primary years, there is a possibility that the outcome may have been somewhat different.

As a successful BA undergraduate, I feel I have tackled nearly everything that has come in the way of my disability. I also feel that on the whole my educational experience was a relatively good one. I maintained a good standard and felt that my secondary education was particularly important in that it helped me prepare well for university. I was fortunate to have good teachers who genuinely cared about my individual needs and because I expressed a positive attitude towards life in school I felt that I was given a great deal of support and encouragement by many of the staff. I have made firm plans to study for a Postgraduate Certificate in Education which hopefully will enable me to teach in a similar situation to my own and to make education providers aware that bilingual children with special needs have exactly the same rights as anybody else when it comes to education.

*Yasmena Waris is a British citizen born in High Wycombe, Bucks., UK.
Her parents originally came from Pakistan.*

UNESCO DIRECTOR-GENERAL'S MESSAGE TO MARK WORLD BOOK AND COPYRIGHT DAY

Paris, April 22 1997, UNESCO Director-General Federico Mayor issued a message to observe April 23 as World Book and Copyright Day. UNESCO's General Conference established the Day in 1995 to promote reading, publishing and the protection of intellectual property. The text of Mr. Mayor's message follows:

"In proclaiming 23 April 'World Book and Copyright Day', the General Conference of UNESCO wished to draw the continuing attention of the international community to the culture of writing and the importance of creativity for the content of communication.

"Whether in their conventional form or in the sophisticated form made possible by the new technologies, books remain both an instrument of reflection and an irreplaceable tool for literacy and education in all countries, rich and poor. They are thus a worldwide key to the development of the individual.

"True enough, some of the content of books is now forsaking the traditional medium of the written page for electronic formats. Digitized and highly compressed by cutting-edge technology, these pages are now able to span the planet showing up, in a matter of seconds, on a screen at the other ends of the earth. This new mode of reading changes nothing about the fundamental nature of writing, for writing is the most obedient and 'patient' medium, that which has the greatest respect for the reader's own pace; it is that which allows in-depth examination and the critical analysis of content.

"It is precisely one of the privileges of our age that we are able to benefit simultaneously from the full range of human inventions accumulated over the preceding centuries. In this sense, we can see books and screens learning to live together under our very eyes, with each assuming those functions which best match our needs. Every medium generates its own language, every medium produces its own mode of expression: the culture of writing adapts and enriches itself by bursting beyond its own bounds. Never has the world been so diverse and complex, and never have there been so many different media to help us understand the culture of others. Surely this gives hope to all those who believe in international understanding and are striving for peace.

"Ever since the invention of printing, books have been the medium of choice, providing an opening on to the imaginative world of others and enabling us to enrich ourselves with their creativity. The rights of these creators have to be safeguarded, for, despite, appearances, human creativity alone is the source and raw material of all cultural industries. Ever faithful to its mandate, UNESCO is determined to ensure that the growing sophistication of the media and means for communicating writing, sound and image should not be used as a pretext for confusing the issue as far as the protection of the rights of authors and other legitimate owners are concerned.

"Let us celebrate this Day with the renewed conviction that the free flow of ideas in writing is one of the vital conditions for the sharing of knowledge, democracy and peace."

UNESCOPRESS No. 97-64

REVIEWS

Early Childhood Education: The Way Forward, Edited by Philip Gammage and Janet Meighan.

*Education Now Publishing Co-operative, P.O.
Box 186, Derby, 1995, 126 pp. Price: £9.95,
ISBN 1 871526 21-3.*

In the very first chapter of this book there is a well-reasoned argument in favour of combined nursery centres. Since hearing about the Hillfield Centre in Coventry more than twenty years ago, and subsequently visiting it, I have been convinced that this is the way forward. Unfortunately very few such centres have opened since then and some are even now being closed. The fact that they are complex institutions involving funding by more than one authority and with many different professionals employed therein should not be used as an excuse to do without them. It seems that the governing factor in setting up any new institution is money - or rather the lack of it. I should like to make this chapter compulsory reading for politicians.

Other chapters cover home-school relationships, classroom practice and ways of improving initial teacher training. I found much in these essays to encourage and inspire teachers and lecturers. Also there is much needed 'fuel' for a positive argument to provide early years education for all children. As the comprehensive reference sections at the end of each chapter show there have been many books and reports written on the subject of young children and education. It is somewhat disheartening to know that we have such a long way to go in providing such education.

I am happy to recommend this book to all those involved with the young child. When you have read it please pass it on to someone who knows little about young children but who you hope will be willing to learn about the issues involved. Young children and their families deserve our support. Too often the help given is too little and too late.

**Mrs. Valerie Wagnall
Retired Headteacher
Kingswood Nursery School
Watford, Herts**

The Polemics of Imagination, Peter Abbs,

*Skoob Books, London, 1996, 173pp, £8.95,
ISBN 1 871438 31 4*

Peter Abbs has made a distinguished contribution to arts education in the UK and is known internationally for his passionate and often iconoclastic views. This

book is a fascinating demonstration of his distinctive approach. It consists of a series of essays written between 1979 and 1993, a period in the history of education in the UK which has been dominated by the politics of Thatcherism and Majorism and by the cultural features of post-modernism.

Abbs' central educational question is how do you fire the human imagination? An intriguing autobiographical thread runs through the essays which enable us to see how his own experience has informed his approach to this question. He recounts how he only really started reading (literature) in his late teens and describes the experiences which inspired him to pursue a passionate, perhaps obsessive, interest in the aesthetic. His sources are wide-ranging and enable the reader to make connections across art forms and across cultures.

The book is divided into four parts. Firstly he considers modernism and post-modernism. While critical of both movements, he concludes the section with an interesting exploration of the links between post-modernism and arts teaching.

In the second section he addresses aesthetic education per se. Not surprisingly there is strong implicit criticism of the National Curriculum, which can only be regarded as hopelessly technicist and constraining in the light of his definitions.

The third section is particularly rich. It consists of five pieces on the nature of autobiography. Here he is fascinated by the connections between individual experience and cultural development. It is here that we gain insights into reflection in education which go way beyond some of the simpler expositions of reflective practice which have been popular during the 1980s and 90s.

In the final section he concentrates on poetry, the art form which he believes is most neglected in arts education currently.

In summary this is an inspiring collection which connects with the aspirations of Matthew Arnold but is no nostalgic trip back to the nineteenth century. It connects also with the concerns of T S Eliot, but is not reactionary. What we have here is a passionate and contemporary proclamation of the humanism of the aesthetic, a call to subjectivity and to creativity in human endeavour and to an education which aspires to develop the individual to the realisation of his or her potential. That such a call seems so radical at the present time is a damning indictment of the crude instrumentalism which has come to dominate so much of current educational thinking and policy, at least in this country.

**Ian Menter
Head of the School of Education
University of North London**

Tomlinson, S. and Craft, M. (eds): Ethnic Relations and Schooling: Policy and practice in the 1990s.

Athlone Press: London and Atlantic Highlands, New Jersey, USA. 1995 Hardback 226 pp, ISBN No. 0485 114569, £28; paperback ISBN 0485 121085, £12.95.

This book is a collection of ten chapters, covering a wide range of areas in ethnic relations in Britain, written by experts in the field. An introduction by Sally Tomlinson and Maurice Craft highlights the need for teacher education to take on more of the responsibility for preparing children for the reality of the 1990s and this is followed by a chapter on the National Curriculum and Ethnic Relations by Annie King and Peter Mitchell. Cecile Wright focuses on ethnic relations in primary schools, and Gajendra Verma on secondary schools. The specific concern of Heidi Mirza is the schooling of young black women while William Taylor highlights the questions raised for all white schools.

Quite a change for books of this type is the inclusion of a chapter on the Local Education Authority, and the Training and Enterprise Council written by Monica Taylor and Carl Bagley. Two issues made particularly crucial to ethnic issues arising from the changes brought in by the government in 1988 are tackled by Barry Troyna, writing on the local management of schools, and Kevin Brehony on school governors and racism. The final chapter written by Carol Vincent is entitled School, Community and Ethnic Minority Parents.

It is very necessary that the dialogues concerning ethnic issues take place especially when the frameworks for implementing positive policies appear to be very marginalised. The book is quite comprehensive and enables someone to have a good overview. It highlights achievements in the period before 1988, pulls out the drawbacks to the legislation since that date, and points to some areas for development in the future.

The book, however, does have somewhat of an air of some materials being reproduced, without necessarily fitting the framework. The result is that some areas that are crucial to ethnic relations and schooling in the 1990's are not covered adequately. The issue of the League Tables, for instance, has played a major part in the level of achievement of minority ethnic children, and their exclusion rate. Many parents and communities have continued to support either week-end classes or supplementary schools, pointing to what many parents and children see as being crucial to their education, their cultural back up. The whole issue of Section 11 funding from the Home Office has

raised much more controversy than any other issue for many minority ethnic parents. What is the impact of school inspections?

The book makes useful contributions to our knowledge and understanding about current issues in ethnic relations. However, it could have been made a much more powerful book had a more comprehensive framework had been created to analyse recent developments and to have more pointers to the future. Most important, an analysis of the different ideologies such as multiculturalism and anti-racism would have highlighted the underlying and quite serious changes in political thinking that led to the policy changes in the 1980s, and would need to be challenged for ethnic relations to be moved to a more central position for a positive policy for the new millennium.

Sneh Shah

Initial Teacher Training: The Dialogue of Ideology and Culture by Margaret Wilkin

Falmer Press, 1996. Price: £13.95, pp217, ISBN 0 7507 0555 8.

This book explores the interventions of successive British governments into initial teacher training over the past three decades. Central to Wilkin's research and analysis are the concepts of ideology and culture. Ideology the set of principles which governs the politics of political parties, and culture that 'common sense' which informs the everyday action of individuals - in this case the professional teacher educators located in universities and colleges.

Wilkin sets out to examine the extent to which the curriculum of initial teacher training has been used by the government for ideological purposes. She presents the view that governments of different perspectives have tried to recast initial teacher training in their image and have succeeded in doing so.

Three periods are analysed in detail: the changes following Robbins in the 1960s when greater emphasis on theory came in along with the then new BEd degrees; the 1970s when there was a lack of coherent ideology emanating from the centre; and the 1980s during which there was a renewed emphasis on the practical aspects of training. The relationship between political ideology and curricular culture is described as a continuous battle.

Wilkin argues that in the 60s and 70s the mood of the target group (teacher educators) was well judged by government. Despite the fact that change was resisted on each occasion the profession itself developed the new ideas and there were professional benefits. This is the dialogue referred to in the title.

A key feature of Wilkin's analysis is the identification of a cycle of movement between extremes in the balance between theory and practice. She argues that the professional culture of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is in favour of a reasonable 'balance'. Ideological intervention has pushed it first one way then the other. Wilkin argues that HEIs do and should reclaim ownership from within each new framework. Initial pragmatic acceptance is necessary if training is to move forward.

Inevitably the reader looks to Wilkin's interpretation of recent events with greatest interest. Sadly the section on the 1990s is thin, only a coda to the main text. Wilkin herself acknowledges that the current situation differs fundamentally from the past given the way in which the government is legislating to impose change. Have we reason to be optimistic that a 'reasonable balance' will re-emerge?

I found this book to be a good read. It contains much that is informative about the history of initial teacher training and students of government and politics should find it useful as an enquiry into how governments seek to shape the work of our public institutions and the ways in which institutions resist and conform. Undoubtedly it will be of greatest interest to teacher educators in England feeling beleaguered by government intervention into almost all aspects of their work. An analysis coupled with comparisons with previous events is timely.

Will Connolly
Senior Lecturer in Education
University of Hertfordshire, England

Education After the Conservatives: The response to the new agenda of reform.
Edited by Richard Hatcher and Ken Jones.
Trentham Books Limited, Stoke-on Trent, Staffordshire. 1996. pp89, £7.95
ISBN: 1 85856 061 6

The editors of 'Education after the Conservatives' are fortunate that their choice of a title has been vindicated by the result of the 1997 general election because for me the book's chief merit lies in its consideration of the political philosophy informing Tony Blair's pre-election conference declaration that his New Labour government's number one priority would be 'education, education, education'. It also presents an alternative perspective with which to view some of the policy initiatives which have already emanated from the DfEE

The editors claim that all four chapters in their book challenge what they see as the New Labour education orthodoxy of modernisation expressed in the 'school effectiveness/improvement' movement. In my view the more interesting and powerful chapters in this book are the first two by Jones and Hatcher.

However Richards' contribution in chapter 3 is worth reading for the strong case made for the pedagogical value of media studies, despite its ambiguities, to teachers and adolescents.

The final chapter is in the form of an interview with Carole and Bernard Regan of the NUT. They are frank about the deleterious impact on the union of the introduction of the market into education and the success of the anti-union measures of the conservative government. They are, however, up beat about the alliances forged at the local level with parents on issues such as the cuts, including redundancies. They are critical of the union's position and they call for a more extended critique of it drawing upon a variety of different resources rather than sitting back waiting for the Godot of the New Labour government to arrive with educational change.

Jones's chapter usefully sketches the profound changes in education from the 1970's onwards. In particular he traces the history of the battle over the teaching of English as an example of his broad theme of curriculum change and cultural politics. In his final section he critically analyses the political philosophy which informs Blair's education policies.

The deliberate rupture of New Labour from the party's reforming past 'downplays the centrality that questions of knowledge and learning should have in the creation of inclusive education cultures'. In his view it is unlikely that the government's promises on raising standards will be achieved without a wider social focus.

Hatcher's chapter opens with the author's anxiety that New Labour will not defend the comprehensive system nor substantially increase education funding. However he goes beyond a mere defensive argument for comprehensives to a critical evaluation of Blair's new reform agenda based on commitment to national prosperity and social cohesion. Hatcher claims that the acid test for the New Labour government will be whether its policies will do as much for working class children and students as nearly two decades of conservative power have done for the privileged middle class.

It remains to be seen what effects Mandelson's announcement of a Poverty Unit will have on what he called Britain's 'underclass'. Hatcher also points out that while school improvement has some exciting new initiatives there is no substance to the claim that it can compensate for the inequalities of social class.

Hatcher concludes by detailing an alternative programme that rests on the centrality of the curriculum to the issue of working class equality and agency. The aim would be to produce counter hegemonic knowledge capable of reconstructing the dominant curriculum. This is an undoubtedly ambitious project but Hatcher does at least have the successful experiences of the Disadvantaged Schools Project in Australia to draw upon. The only comparable large

scale movements seen in this country have been the gender and 'race' equality campaigns from the 1970's and 1980's. The essence of the Hatcher plan is for local self activity in and beyond the classroom to tackle the continued reproduction of inequality. It would require a negotiated curriculum rather than the dead hand of the National Curriculum along with more democratic school management and genuine partnership. While recognising the difficulties and dangers of this alternative approach he cites in its support productive experiences in Toronto schools and communities. He concludes that it represents a far better alternative to the conservative agenda than New Labour's social-democratic statism which only serves to depoliticise and sap the energies of those concerned to challenge the reproduction of class inequality.

The book's alternative perspective and agenda for reform should appeal particularly to readers resistant to the conservative legacy in education and uneasy about the direction of the New Labour Agenda but more generally to those with an interest in improving state education.

Frank Parker
Associate Lecturer, The Open University

Studying School Subjects, A Guide - Goodson, I. F. and Marsh, C. J.

*1996, Falmer Press, London,
ISBN 0-7507-05884 cased £39.00.*

A tediously long title for this book might have been: *A study of school subjects - their evolution and their dampening effect on educational development*. I understand why the authors did not choose it, though it would have been reasonably descriptive of the content.

The expressed intention was to produce a primer for potential students of the curriculum, and so there is extensive reference to other publications. These draw on developments in the United Kingdom (mainly, England), the United States and Australia, though with some reference elsewhere, for example to New Zealand and Germany. Each chapter ends with a useful conclusion and a set of questions for the reader.

Because the authors introduce the reader to various views on the origins and nature of school curricula, the categorisation of influences on their characteristics differs through the book. For example, the dominant (but not exclusive) force may be academic, utilitarian, or pedagogic; or the tussle is between general and practical education; or perhaps between protecting the position of the privileged against the development of a satisfactory education for all. Furthermore, the curriculum initiators - whether re-capturing ground for old styles or breaking through old restrictions - turn out to be uncomfortable bedfellows drawn from subject teaching departments (in schools and universities), bureaucrats, politicians, parents and sundry others.

Despite the complexity described, my own experience suggests that the picture painted is over-simplified. There is too much presumption - in the separate parts of the book rather than across its whole - that individuals within a group are like-minded and like-motivated. For example, the authors rightly draw attention to the impact of the Sputnik on political/educational thinking in the West. They do not, I think, sufficiently recognise that the formation of the DES Curriculum Study Group (1962), its evolution into the Schools Council (1964-84) and the enactment of the National Curriculum (1988) were part of a continuous process of forcing change aimed at updating the curriculum. There were different views about what the changes should be, some, in sympathy with the 1960s *Black Papers*, wanting a concentration on drill and memorisation and others, as through the Nuffield projects (intriguingly, disproportionately led by subject teachers from the independent sector) pressing for expansiveness. Individuals within groups differed in what they thought should be done and, not least, in what they thought could be done. Few really appreciated the implications for in-service training.

Three chapters are given to changes within English, mathematics and science. Others, especially the final two trace (a) the increasing inclination of the relevant governments to control the curriculum and (b) the inertia within the system, not least because of the power of the secondary school subject departments and the influence of the universities. Primary/elementary education gets some mention, especially in an account of the demise of Dawes' splendid attempt, in 1842, to introduce science based on everyday experience and, a lesson on the power of 'popular' opinion, the fate of Bruner's *Man a Programme of Study* in Queensland, Australia in the 1970's.

It is, perhaps a pity that more thought was not given to the primary school curriculum. In fact, the quoted similarities between English secondary (grammar) schools of 1904 and the National Curriculum could have been matched with reference to junior schools of the 1920's to 1960's. The topics/social studies combination during the next two decades, mainly of geography and history and, less often, religious education, was seldom more than amalgamation. All of this without protective subject departments in the schools.

Despite the occasional slip - the 1988 Act introduced 10 foundation subjects *including* the core (P61); Bennett's 1976 findings were not about open plan schools and have in any case been thrown into doubt by a re-examination of the data (P37) - this is a book worth reading by anyone interested in curriculum development. Will someone now draw a distinction between the definition of the curriculum and the organisation of its teaching?

Professor Norman Thomas
University of Hertfordshire.

The following article is reprinted courtesy of Cornerstones, published by the Research Office of the Right Livelihood Award Foundation, London. (October 1997).

Professor P. K. Ravindran, KSSP President, and Professor E. K. Narayanan were recipients of the Right Livelihood Award in 1996. (Editor).

Kerala Sastra Sahitya Parishad

The KSSP is the people's science movement of Kerala State, India. Founded in 1962 as an organisation of science writers, it has developed far beyond its original aims and over three decades has become a mass movement, making a vital contribution to Kerala's successful model of people-centred development.

Twenty years ago, KSSP had 2,600 members and had just started to organise all-India workshops for science activists. Today it has over 60,000 members, separate centres for environment, science and integrated rural technology, as well as having played a leading role in the establishment of the All-India People's Science Network.

KSSP's success has been built largely on its remarkable publishing programme. In order to bring science to the people, the organisation has up to now published 600 books and is producing 30-40 new titles each year. The books are sold by its activists who take them house to house and to schools and offices. This yields an income of Rs.5 million a year, which is enough to cover all KSSP's regular activities. It accepts government funding for special projects but, as a matter of principle, none from foreign agencies.

A monthly science publication for primary school children has a print run of 70,000 copies. Two other magazines are produced; one for secondary school students and one for college students and the general public.

Aside from publishing, KSSP's major fields of work include education, the environment, development, energy, women's issues and research. A significant proportion of its members are teachers, so the education programme is particularly strong; it runs in-service teacher training, assesses curricula and textbooks and runs large-scale children's science festivals and teacher exchange programmes. On the energy front, half a million homes have installed KSSP's high efficiency wood stoves, saving an estimated 700,000 tonnes of firewood per year.

Through the All-India People's Science Network, KSSP has also been at the forefront of massive literacy campaigns in India over the past 10 years. These campaigns, based substantially on the experience of Kerala (where literacy has largely been eliminated), have mobilised nearly six million volunteers and 60 million 'learners'.

The organisation's brochure puts its position plainly: "The KSSP views Indian society as one divided into two groups - a minority which is continuously getting enriched at the expense of the majority, and the majority which is continuously getting impoverished or facing the threat of impoverishment."

For the awards ceremony in Stockholm, KSSP was represented by its president, Professor P. K. Ravindran, and Prof. E. K. Narayanan. *Cornerstones* went to speak to them.

Up-ending the pyramid

C *You have said that people in many parts of India are more down-trodden than in Kerala. But that's not because Kerala is inherently richer?*

Prof. Ravindran: No, not at all. The reason is that, even though Kerala has one of the lowest per capita incomes in the country, what we have is well distributed, and that's because of the level of political consciousness, land reform, education and various progressive movements. All these have contributed to a sort of social security. The State government spends almost half its total budget on education and health.

C *And as a science movement, do you define 'science' in a strictly academic sense or — as it seems from your programme — more broadly as knowledge?*

We are concerned with any form of knowledge that has to do with man and nature. Our idea is that science is not coming from ivory towers, it comes from the common man who works in a factory or on the land. It may also be done in laboratories, but it's actually the property of the common man because it came from his labours. Our task is to empower the ordinary people with the tools of science.

C *KSSP talks of the potential for social revolution. What kind of revolution do you envisage?*

By social revolution we mean the reversal of the process of impoverishment. Though we are not linked to any political party, in that sense we are not political. We want to reverse the pyramid.

Themes for the Future Issues of New Era in Education and Deadlines for Contributors

August 1998: Defining Quality in Education

Deadline for articles: March 1 1998

Deadline for other contributions: May 1 1998

December 1998: Education: Liberation or Oppression?

Deadline for articles: July 1 1998

Deadline for other contributions: September 1 1998

April 1999: Visions to Reality

Deadline for articles: November 1 1998

Deadline for other contributions: January 7 1999

August 1999: Cost of Higher Education: Taking Stock

Deadline for articles: March 1 1999

Deadline for other contributions: May 1 1999

December 1999: Education = Literacy and Numeracy?

Deadlines for articles: July 1 1999

Deadline for other contributions: September 1 1998

Notes for contributors to the New Era in Education

Contributions are welcome on any other areas of the work of the World Education Fellowship. They should be sent to the editor, Dr. Sneha Shah, Faculty of Humanities, Languages and Education, University of Hertfordshire, Watford Campus, Aldenham, Hertfordshire, UK, WD2 8AT, tel: +44(0)1707 285677, fax: +44(0)1707 285616.

Length of Articles

These should normally be between 1000 and 4000 words.

Format of Articles

Authors should send three copies typed on single-sided A4 paper, with double line spacing. The pages should be numbered and each copy should have at the top of the first page the title, author's name, and the date sent to the editor. Once the article has been accepted authors will be required to send a 3.5 disc. Citation of sources in the text should normally be in the convention (Graves, 1990), (Spielburg in Desai 1980), (Kironyo 1981, 1984, 1989).

References and bibliographies should normally be presented as follows:

Adams, E. (1955) **Testing Individual Children**, London, UK, Wimbledon Press

Adams, E. (1975) Profiling, **New Journal**, 5(3), 55-74

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Defining Quality in Education

Sneh Shah

The latest buzz word is quality. So what is quality?

Definitions of quality are varied; some believe the concept is an impossible one to deal with in abstract. There is no agreement about the exact meaning of quality and its application. It could refer to very high standards, consistency (or zero defects), fitness for purpose, or value for money, just to give some examples. Conrad (1994:2) in a paper entitled **A Discussion of the Concept of Equality in Relation to Educational Planning, Taking Nepal as an Example**, presented at the conference, Quality of Education in the Context of Culture in Developing Countries, Tampere, Finland, highlighted our concerns:

The reasons for working with such a concept are rarely questioned, and the concept itself, is seldom defined. Nevertheless, it is employed in a variety of ways and purposes in the field of education and is usually accepted as if we knew what it meant.

As a result there are diverse interpretations of the word amongst countries, within countries and within localities. In higher Education in Britain, funding and status are very much linked to judgements about quality.

The more common applications of quality relate to higher education institutions as business enterprises. Quality can be taken as consistency, or it can be measured in terms of the end product, i.e. the level and percentage of passes. It could be value for money, or it could be high standards, but then again, the question would be, who defines those standards?

There are, however, other possibilities. Nightingale and O'Neil (1994:10) in **Achieving Quality Learning in Higher Education**, indicate a preference for quality as transformative:

Our notion of what is the essence of higher education is exactly this, transforming the student, empowering her and enhancing her by developing higher order intellectual capacities which allow her to critique her experience and herself.

They believe the purpose of university education is to develop the general qualities of a personal and social kind as well as those of an intellectual kind. Outcomes would thus include communication skills, problem-solving abilities, inter-personal skills, planning and strategic thinking abilities etc.

Wherever money is involved, e.g. by way of a grant, overseas aid, or education institutions operating as companies with limited capabilities, all concerns about the wider purposes of education seem to become marginalized. There are arguments for stringent periodic reviews of any venture but the ones in education internationally seem to move away from the business framework.

An exposition of possible value of equality in the consideration of quality will show how we as educators are failing if we do not remind ourselves and policy makers about different purposes of education.

With reference to schools Frith and Mahoney in **Promoting Quality and Equality in Schools : Empowering teachers through change** (1994:1-2) believe:

Quality and equality are inextricably linked. How can we attempt to raise standards through the delivery of a new curriculum and with new methods of assessment, without using the knowledge we have gained about the different effect of teaching style and grouping on pupil performance? How can we hope to improve our assessment techniques if we ignore what we have learnt about differences in motivation and performance between boys and girls? How can we hope to deliver productive mechanisms for appraising teacher performance without acknowledging the different ways in which women and men develop their teaching styles? The enormous amount of research carried out in the 1980's is not old fashioned irrelevance, it was and still is central to the task of improving the quality of education.

Any school, therefore, which is aiming to raise standards and is not looking at issues of quality is bound to fail and those schools which are seemingly addressing the issues and discover that standards are not rising, should look again.

In the business world owners are dependant on customer satisfaction. A better balance in the business of education will be come possible when students and parents/guardians of younger pupils realise how much power they have actually got and start taking much greater part in the analysis of what is quality in education. If the name of the game is business, then the customers should learn to play.

Action Research on Action Research

Carol A. Marchel and Robert Gaddis

This paper also represents in part the work of other collaborative researchers. They were members of a university class about action research at the University of Tennessee: Ralph Brickey, Angela Cozart, Dent Davis, Teresa Nolan, Martha Merrill, John Peters, Pauline Prosser, P. J. Snodgrass, Dorothy Stulberg, Akenori Takeda, and Wen-Ling Lai. Additional work was completed by a second team, which in addition to some of the above included: Al Lindstrom, Ken Baron, Doug Ralston and Gabriel Swope.

This paper was presented orally at the 10th annual International Qualitative Research in Education Conference at the University of Georgia-Athens on January 9, 1997. Presenters included (in addition to the primary authors above): Al Lindstrom, John Peters, and Doug Ralston.

Introduction

This is a series of stories. The first tells about an action research experience. The second is a retelling of the first, as seen through the eyes of a second group of researchers. The last story is the retelling of both stories by two of the participants. While we do not always mention all the characters in the story, we are cognizant of the part they played, and we endeavour to include their ideas, voices, and parts as much as possible.

Stories are interesting and meaningful. They may be the way humans are most comfortable with transferring knowledge. Certainly they have a long tradition of use. Our work and thoughts are presented here in stories. We do this in part to make what we did understandable, but also because action research is, in structure, like a story. It has a beginning, something happens, and then there may be some sort of resolution. And just as many tend to evolve and change upon each retelling, action research has no real ending but continues to evolve and change — becoming in a sense, another story.

Through telling our stories, we want to show how action research can be used as a teaching tool, to illustrate the role of reflective dialogue in action research, and to identify what were for us, (and might be for future action researchers), important themes. While it is not our intent to describe action research, believing that most readers have some previous familiarity with the concept, we do offer this brief description as a starting point: In general, action research is a process in which people act in a planful way and then study their own actions so as to learn from them and thereby inform future action. It is very much focused on change, but change in the sense of

improving one's own practice (or of a group working together to improve their own practice), not change in the sense of one person unilaterally ordering another to make changes. A good overview of action research is provided by Susan Noffke (1996). Interested readers can also find information on the uses of action research in teaching in higher education (Kember & McKay, 1996), and action research as a social change agent (Reason, 1993; Reason, 1994).

But now it's story time.....

Story one: Learning Action Research

In the summer of 1996, eleven of us met to learn about doing action research in a class by that name at the University of Tennessee-Knoxville. We were a diverse group of graduate students, representing education, business, law, tourism, and community agencies. Each of us identified a group of people outside the course with whom we would develop an action research project. Thus, in order to learn about action research, we would "do" action research, not just read about it or discuss it.

In addition to the emphasis on learning by doing, a key element of the course involved using members of the class as sounding boards as we worked through our various projects. Most importantly was our use of dialogue. Our perspective was that action research must involve reflecting on our own assumptions. Following the thinking of Isaacs (1993), and Senge (1990), we realised that only if we could understand our own biases could we engage in action research that truly served the interests of the groups with which we worked. Most of us had prior experience with reflective practice, using group dialogue to reach a deeper understanding of a complex issue (Senge, 1990).

We were interested in research that would bridge the gap between theory and practice, and that valued the voices of all participants. While recognizing that, as Susan Noffke has pointed out, ... *action research is best thought of as a large family, one in which beliefs and relationships vary greatly*, (Noffke 1996, p. 306), for us the importance of reflective dialogue during the process of action research could not be overstated.

As collaborators, our dialogue focused on the process of doing action research, on readings in action research, and also on the underlying assumptions of group members that influenced the action research projects. Dialogue continued outside of formal class meetings via e-mail. Each of us distributed e-mail messages to all group members so that all could share in the dialogue. E-mail served to both to extend and supplement in-class dialogue, and also as a focus of

future in-class dialogue. It began to carry much of the weight of the ongoing dialogue. All class papers and written reflections were shared via e-mail.

Our projects were varied. They included collaborative welfare reform, neighbourhood safety, organizing a Japanese student organization, and improving the structure of a university class, to name a few. As some interdisciplinary researchers have pointed out, issues of language became important with diverse groups (Crow, Levine, & Nager, 1992). We found this to be true, but the richness of working with a diverse group was also seen as a strength because it was this diversity that often provided alternate viewpoints on issues during dialogue.

Action research has been characterized as cyclical in nature; periods of planning, action, evaluation, and reflection follow one another and are repeated (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988a; Reason, 1994). We experienced what we came to describe later as ‘spirals’ of action research as we worked with our own action research projects. As one participant reported on actions taken, another participant’s comments suggested another avenue to explore. Reflection and dialogue served to redirect actions as well as a way to examine assumptions guiding those actions. The collaboration of the co-participants was essential to the process.

Story two: AR2 (Action Research Squared)

The second story starts where the first one ends. After the course in action research was ‘over’, several of the original participants as well as some new group members worked together to study the process of action research. All of us were interested in collaborative research and wanted to learn more about the action research process. Using transcripts of e-mail dialogue, and copies of course papers, we intended to collaboratively evaluate the process of action research. This process became termed “action research-squared”, because we were using action research to look at action research.

Our intent was to look at themes in the data sources, and this we did. We had voluminous notes from e-mail dialogue, course papers describing action research projects, and written reflections of original class participants. We decided to work in two smaller groups, with each group responsible for part of the data. After this process we met to share our findings and, through dialogue, to look at the assumptions guiding our interpretations. Although we did identify some initial themes, and although these themes did provide some insight about action research, we were surprised to discover the extent to which our own world views continued to influence our understanding of the research process.

Gabriel, who was Liberian, found themes reflecting cultural differences and power dynamics. Al, with an

interest in myth and knowing, saw themes relating to the meaning of knowledge. Bob, interested in group dynamics, saw themes reflecting group processes. And Carol, with leanings toward critical theory, saw issues reflecting power dynamics. Seeing that each person’s viewpoint was shaping their analysis of the data, we decided to make each participant’s subjectivity the focus of the group. Each of us wrote a position paper to the group to help understand what shaped our perceptions. These differences in perceptions were seen as strengths, as we recognized that each participant’s subjectivity constituted another important part of the data collection for the project. With greater awareness of our own positions, we could look back at the data with more scrutiny.

Several broad themes were evident to us about the nature of action research experienced by the original participants:

First: Group members who had no previous experience with reflective dialogue expressed some frustration with the process. Paul’s comments represented this frustration:

Since I have not had (reflective practice), I felt at somewhat of a disadvantage in this process but have tried to pick up some of the main points for reflective practice ‘on the fly’ ... I tried to do some journaling, but it just didn’t seem to work for me.

It seemed likely to us that practice and/or experience participating in reflective dialogue is important prior to collaborative action research.

Second: The use of e-mail had both positive and negative aspects when used as part of participatory research: Technical problems including getting all members set up with e-mail, hardware and software differences, and having correct e-mail addresses for all participants were sources of initial frustration. The large volume of e-mail produced by at least a dozen collaborators can be overwhelming. Some of us were concerned about the lack of interpersonal, face-to-face contact. Some of us liked using a computer, because it provided more “think time” as we reflected on the ongoing dialogue. E-mail was helpful in that it did serve to extend dialogue and to prepare us for an even richer group meeting in class. Mary, for example, said, *I love the e-mail feature of the class and think that we’ve really started something with our attempts to dialogue through electronic media.* It became apparent, that for e-mail to work effectively, all members must have access to all messages sent.

Third: One of the more interesting findings of the thematic analysis of the original process was actually the absence of a theme we expected to find. While group members did describe the group as being of value to them, no one described him or herself as being important to the group. The importance of all voices

in the participatory research process is a common theme in the work of Horton and Freire (Freire, 1970; Freire & Horton, 1990). We wondered if individuals in the group did not recognize their value to the group. Did cultural norms prohibit claiming that each of us provided help to the group? This may be one of the more difficult aspects we each have to learn about collaborative action research: that we each have value and can benefit the group.

Four: Many themes supported the ideas of Horton and Freire. The importance of language, of including the voices of the people, and of the awareness of power dynamics were all repeated themes. There were, for example, daily e-mail messages asking participants to define what they meant by the language used, and reflection on the importance of using a particular word rather than some other. Dianne, an attorney, exemplified her new-found awareness of power relationships in her own work: *I want to do less doing and more helping my clients to be able to row their own boats.*

Five: Many themes had to do with the experience of engaging in action research. The importance of the other group members and group interactions were often mentioned. Carol, for example, recognized the value of the group process and dialogue.

I echo the value of a collaborative action research group, both for the assistance it provided this particular project, and for the ideas discussed about research. Dialogue around issues of power and collaboration were (and are) central to my growing understanding of my role as a researcher.

Metaphors used in the dialogue served as a common language and contributed to group cohesion. An often repeated metaphor had to do with weaving or quilting. Bob and Carol's whimsical collaborative poem about their project is an example of this theme:

*Making a quilt, so it seems,
Is like stitching together our dreams,
Our wishes, ambitions,
Beliefs, intuitions,
Assumptions, conclusions and schemes.*

On numerous occasions mention was made in the transcripts of how the group functioned. Mary had this to say,

In my limited experience, the potential for continuing positive influence is enhanced by the collaboration involved ... I also learned from discussing my individual project with our group. I feel great about our work together.

Other issues raised included equal participation, the value of active listening and asking questions of each other. Throughout, the group process was as important as the content of the dialogue.

While we looked back at the experience of the original group participants, we learned a great deal about ourselves as researchers. As we reflected on our own work, we saw that the role our assumptions played continued to be crucial. Reflective dialogue continued to be a necessary ingredient in the research process.

Story three: AR3

The third story had its beginning with the summer class, now quite some time ago. As we looked back with our collaborators, the story was further developed and embellished. Now we tell it again, from the perspectives we now hold. Two of us have continued a spiral of reflection and dialogue and are now presenting our thoughts on the experience. As it happens, the two of us sharing our stories below are teaching at the university. Our interest is in using action research in the educational process. We trace below how our thoughts have evolved and what we learned about teaching and using action research.

Bob's story: "Several things stand out for me from this experience. I continue to be aware of interpersonal communication and relationship issues as having a profound impact on the processes and the outcomes of action research. Indeed, for me, these issues are at the core of what action research is about: how power is constituted and distributed among people in groups.

"Participation, as I see it, may be understood in several ways. One view might be that 'equal opportunity' is all that is necessary or desirable in a group. From this perspective, if members of a group are 'allowed' to speak or otherwise express themselves, that is good enough. But what if a group were to do more than 'allow' participation? What if the group actively sought to encourage, invite and solicit open expression by all its members? What if all members did their best to *help* all other members express their ideas, opinions, beliefs, and feelings to the fullest extent possible?

"To do this would require that each person in the group consider how his or her actions were influencing others' willingness or ability to participate freely. I think that doing this would at least begin to address the problems of oppression and dehumanization as described by Paulo Freire. As he points out, both oppressed and oppressor are dehumanized in an oppressive system. He goes on to warn against those who are oppressed becoming oppressors themselves by adopting the methods of oppression once they attain power (1970).

"It seems to me, however, that any person is or can be either an oppressor or the oppressed at any time in a relationship. Martin Buber speaks of 'imposing' versus 'unfolding' approaches to influencing others, and of the notion of *being willing to be influenced by* even as one is *willing to influence* the other (1965).

“Education as often practised, it seems to me, is a system of oppressors and oppressed, a dehumanizing system where imposing prevails. Creating different kinds of relationships among people is the key to changing such a system. As Kemmis and McTaggart (1988) point out, changing the way we relate to each other within a small group may be a way to stimulate change in the wider culture:

Changing a whole society and culture is, on the face of it, beyond the reach of the individual, in action research, groups work together to change their language, their modes of action, and their social relationships and thus, in their own ways, prefigure, foreshadow and provoke changes in the broader fabric of interactions which characterize our society and culture, (p. 17).

“What is transmitted by our educational system if not a culture of imposition and oppression? Freire’s ‘oppressors’ and Buber’s ‘propagandists’ too often bear the title of ‘teacher’, ‘instructor’ or ‘professor’. In fact, we all play these roles from time to time in our relationships. Will educators take responsibility to change this?”

Carol’s story: “During the course of this process, I have struggled with what I have at times felt was too much rhetoric. In looking back, I think much of this (although maybe not all) was necessary. In too many classrooms and on too many campuses, the experiences of students are not part of the process. If students are not allowed to give voice to these experiences, what they learn is isolated from the real world. In a wonderful essay, Jan Zita Grover (1992) shares her realization that it is this separation that resulted in what for her was unsatisfactory teaching. Only by including the experiences and ideas of her students was there the possibility of something happening in the classroom that would make a difference in the world.

And as so often happens, the students’ own experience outside the classroom introduced the pieces of living culture that the representations we were handling both mirrored and shaped ... we were a collective resource that used what we made together to act, to change things as best we could outside the classroom, (p. 234).

“In the world of educational research, too often research is something that is done at the university for or to the practitioners in the field. (Is this part of the system of the ‘oppressor’ and the ‘oppressed’ that Bob is talking about?) Teachers are often not a part of that research, or if they are, it is often not as equal partners. Goodland (1997) points out the need for research in education that is sensitive to the needs of teachers and is meaningful to their work. I think only when teachers are part of the research process can that research

become useful for them. Collaborative action research is a vehicle for connecting teachers with research.

“Another struggle I had in this process involved the roles of various participants in the collaboration process. Collaboration has become a popular term, but my experience is that while a good ideal, the reality is difficult to achieve. In our work with this project, for example, I felt an overwhelming urge to organize and direct. I did not always trust that others would complete their parts of the work as I envisioned they should be done. I learned to let go of some of this, but part of it was true: there were those in the group that did better with details. There were those with theoretical knowledge. I have come to believe that it is healthy to recognize the strengths of those in the group and to capitalize on those strengths. An interesting article by Wasser and Bressler (1996) explores the way collaborative research groups develop roles in the process. I think of this as a normal function of such collaboration and suggest that these roles be recognized and used by the group.

“Finally, in teaching, in learning, and in doing research, we ‘see’ everything through our own perceptions. Innumerable texts include this observation. It was only when I experienced for myself how this happened that I think I really understood the phenomenon. This unavoidable subjectivity is also part of classroom experiences and work in schools. It is not necessarily ‘bad’ or ‘good’, but must be recognized by us as we work together as educators.

“I remain at least partly a pragmatist. I want what I do to make a difference and I want to do the things that make a difference. Sometimes this means that I have to ‘let go’ of my own assumptions about how things should be said or done. Always this means that the voices of all participants must be heard, whether in the classroom, or in research. I need to work at least as hard to listen as I do to speak so that others understand me.”

What does it all mean?

We have presented three spirals of an action research project. Each cycle deepened our understanding of action research. Collaborative action research can be used as a tool for humanizing the learning experience, as we suggest in our reflections. It is also a necessary feature of ethical and meaningful research. Humanizing education and humanizing research, while both outcomes of action research, are not separable. And they should not be.

At a time when the quality of teaching in higher education is much criticized, and when what is being taught is sometimes viewed as esoteric and irrelevant by students, action research provides a format to actively involve students in their own learning and the learning of their peers. It encourages student

reflection, and continual appraisal and improvement of the academic process. It is also collaborative, recognizing that everyone in the group/classroom can act as both a teacher and a learner. We are reminded of something William Zinsser wrote in his book, **Writing to Learn** (1988). Zinsser spent some time talking with noted scholars and teachers about what they saw as important about their teaching. Aiden Kavanagh, a Benedictine monk at Yale University had this to say,

No one can teach wisdom, least of all I. But what I can do in my own field of liturgical scholarship is to engage my students in an environment of facts, method and perspective in which wisdom may be learned by us all, (p. 26).

Understanding the collaborative nature of action research beyond the classroom as well: Groups as diverse as business, law, education, and social agencies were the beneficiaries of action research projects in our work. For those who are calling for higher education to connect more strongly with the real world, and for those interested in making real world changes, collaborative action research is a process of such connection and change.

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FORTHCOMING

Teaching : Towards a Research Based Profession

In the December 1998 issue of **New Era in Education** a key paper from David Turner (Chairperson, WEF GB) will initiate discussion both about the role of teachers as researchers and the part of **New Era in Education** in such an important theme.

This will be followed by a seminar.

It will be a key theme to be explored in the following issues of **New Era in Education**.

Reports on research projects conducted by teachers and academic articles are invited.

Editor

Target Setting

Pat Gidley and John Churcher

This article approaches the subject of target setting by considering a number of issues arising from the experiences and research of the authors undertaken in the primary school sector.

Introduction

Once again school education in England and Wales appears to have become a context for initiatives better suited to the commercial world from which they evolved. The national targets for education and training were originally promoted by the Confederation of British Industry in 1991 [Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted)/Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), 1996] in an attempt to improve the United Kingdom's international competitiveness. One of the constituents in the realisation of the aim was [op. cit, 1996] that *all education and training develops self reliance, flexibility and breadth, in particular through fostering competence in core skills.*

Ambitious targets were set by the previous government for the year 2000, [op. cit. 1996] in particular 75% of young people by the age of 19 years to achieve a higher level of competence than current 19 year olds in communication, numeracy and IT, and 35% to achieve an even higher level of competence in these core skills by age 21. The present government has announced National Targets for literacy and numeracy at Key stage 2, for pupils up to age 11 years. The commitments are that, by 2002, 80% of eleven year olds will reach Level 4 in English and 75% of eleven year olds will reach Level 4 in Mathematics - both considerably higher standards than currently achieved.

An interpretation of the current situation

Smithers writing in the Guardian Educational [February 3rd, 1998] underlines the extent of this new challenge. The recently published results from LEAs showed that only the City of London with its one school came within 10% of its individual target. No other authority reached 80% in English and some were more than 30% below.

The original levels set out by the previous government were as Smithers noted, "pegged" at what could be expected of the average seven, eleven and fourteen year old. Since the original assessments were set in the expectation that about 50% of pupils could pass at or above the end of designated key stage levels, the present government seems to have shifted the average, giving it what Smithers describes *a seemingly impossible task-particularly in the case of English, shifting the average to 80%.*

Schools are to receive sets of comparative information through data from Ofsted. The Ofsted Performance and Assessment [PANDA] will incorporate benchmarking data, providing comparisons between similar schools. The new statistical tables from the Qualifications and Curriculum Authority use information which has previously been mistrusted for its irrelevance, in that it shows the number of pupils having free school meals. The criteria for such data appear limited as is perhaps the life span of such data. One headteacher's view is that benchmarking could be misleading, since there is no allowance made for the standard of pupils upon entry to a school. LEAs will need to adjust their expectations and targets for their schools in order to meet the baselines of individual schools.

A further contention is that league tables which will embody targets for individual schools can often be seen by stakeholders, and especially by parents, as indicators of the values held by the school. Therefore those who are most successful are not deemed to value inclusive education.

Schools are expected to take responsibility for their own improvement, in the drive towards seeking higher standards. The present government nevertheless places a reliance on the measurable achievement of quantifiable outcomes such as Curriculum Tests, GCSE and A level. However teacher assessment is acknowledged as having a place in target setting.

Reynolds [1997] notes that school improvement in the 1960s and '70s had a number of paradigmatic characteristics and that the early approach adopted a technological view of school improvement, in which innovations were brought to schools from outside and were introduced top down. He says, *the whole improvement edifice was based upon a positivistic, quantitative evaluation of effects.*

The new movement, *improvement paradigm* of the 1980s born from the failure of the previous model, celebrated bottom up school improvement. Qualitative techniques became the approved methodology for measurement. The DfEE publication of 1996 notes that *the effective use of targets, especially quantitative targets, may help schools to articulate clearly what is expected of, for example of each pupil, class or group, or indeed of the school as a whole.* This would seem to imply a return to the failed paradigm of the 1960s or '70s.

It is very difficult to define satisfactorily terms such as 'school improvement' and 'school effectiveness', especially as Reynolds takes a chapter to explore these issues and other authors whole books to do the same!

Perhaps *improvement* is more concerned with adding value to the educational outcomes and experiences of the pupils, whilst 'effectiveness' more with the 'value for money/fit for its purpose' aspects of the school as an organisation. However, both terms have been used almost interchangeably by the previous government and the present, but says Reynolds [1997] there is a lack of "mesh" between the two, with the exception of North America where links between what he describes as *two disciplines or sub disciplines* are emerging. Headteachers, who although not generally opposed to target setting, wonder exactly where the ownership of data lies. For example, will it be used in future to inform the financing of schools? They foresee an erosion in the quality of teaching and learning should professionals need to be further deployed in data collection and its interpretation. There has also been a certain amount of discontinuity in education over the last decade and there is little or no evidence of 'emerging patterns' against which to interpret their recent data.

'Good' teachers who are experienced currently pick up many of the issues that can be detected by the use of data collection procedures, but one perceived advantage is that the data may better inform targeted planning for individual pupils. However a 'hard nosed' approach to target setting may serve to demotivate children facing learning difficulties. Pupils with special needs are not exempt from target setting. Yvonne Craig [1998], a teacher at Jericho Primary School, is quoted as saying *league tables do not give a true reflection because they are baseline tests. They look at how the child has come on. This can be soul destroying if a child is deemed to be below average, when he/she is working really hard and taking extra lessons or doing extra homework.*

Generally it is accepted that it is important to have a value added dimension in order to see how far the school has brought on the child. This represents personal progress rather than raw achievement. This is essential for schools who have a great number of special needs children and for those who have a pupils for whom English is an additional language. In turn target setting may help to raise achievement for these children.

Although there is considerable governmental enthusiasm for the introduction of target setting for every pupil, it has to be noted that this is not a new innovation. Individual Education Plans [IEP] with objectives and strategies, based upon teacher assessment, have been used for some time in primary schools. The market led philosophy into which schools are placed and the resultant parental expectation for their individual child will see the requirement to establish a form of IEP for every pupil. This will present major logistical and organisational problems for teachers.

Problems can arise where individual achievement is lower than the expectation for the group as a whole. It does not necessarily mean that the individual has not achieved. Self fulfilling prophecies and too high an expectation could prevent some of these children from achieving even that of which they may be capable.

Tensions are mounting concerning the perception that learning is being narrowed by the concentration on National Curriculum core subjects. It has been suggested that the present government *slimmed down* the primary curriculum [without consultation] as a panic response to its unrealistic targets. What does this imply for schools who may have in their latest Ofsted reports the exhortation to broaden their developments in non core subjects? Will Ofsted also 'slim down' their inspection criteria in response? Other concerns have surfaced with regard to pupils who are not able to achieve in the basic skills, yet may excel in the foundation subjects. What motivating criteria will need to be found for these children?

Michael Smith in his recent letter in the Times Educational Supplement [January 30th 1998] refers to the knock on effect on secondary schools. The writer says, *The National Curriculum, after all, is more than a National Curriculum for primaries. Just as road improvements often merely move the traffic jams along to the next main intersection, so the overload problem will only be shifted to the secondaries.*

There are many internal and external school stakeholders who will influence the development and implementation of targets and plans. The resultant adverse impact upon schools, from such a wide range of interest groups, threatens to undermine and overload the already burdensome nature of teaching and managing tasks. Obviously the DfEE in setting the National Targets will also continue to influence the training targets for the National Professional Qualification for Headteachers. Add to this the influence upon schools, classrooms, teachers and IEPs of even a slimmed down National Curriculum and teachers will have little autonomy in the selection of curriculum content that is relevant to the needs and interests of the pupils. The Local Education Authority will also be responsible for interpreting and requiring the National Targets to be implemented within its individual schools. It is an interesting time table considering that the first review of National Targets will coincide with the next general election.

The rolling programme of six year Ofsted inspections will also impact upon schools particularly where the guidance for inspection does not coincide with LEA or school interpretation and application of National Targets. Timing becomes a more acute problem when schools also introduce a full baseline assessment procedure linked to governmental promises of value added measures to make published SATs results more informative and accurate.

Within each school the role of Governors will inevitably change yet again. There will be the increasing responsibility for the school development plan; an appraisal system that should be professionally developmental but doubtless will be become accountable in the face of such pressures as parental interpretation of published results and the requirement to ensure that schools maintain a broad and balanced curriculum for the pupil. There could be further pressures brought to bear upon governors by unhappy parents who are, even now, increasingly threatening either to remove their children from the school or, where there are parallel classes, demanding that their child does not go to a certain teacher. All of these may precipitate unhelpful or ill considered confrontation between governors, their teachers and the professional associations.

There may be further problems for head teachers and governors resulting from proposed changes to the Teachers' Pay and Conditions that will inevitably lead to more flexible contracts or a situation in which a teacher who is seen to be failing is quickly and clinically dismissed. It is not hard to see redeployment within the school of a poor, rather than a failing teacher to a year group perceived to be the one where the least damage can be done to the children and the published results.

West [1993] suggests that *a loss of common purpose and shared values in our society encourages a tendency to turn away from the immeasurable areas which are concerned with value and ethics and to substitute such considerations as a reliance upon the apparently neutral language of technical and operative mechanisms.*

Conclusion

Is this what we are now seeing through the introduction of target setting and further data rich approaches to education and learning? If so, heads and governors in the future will need to become even more skilful in the transmission of values, purposes and ethics if they are not to be swamped by the increased agendas of accountability.

Target setting itself will be of benefit to individual pupils but when taken as part of an overall package of change measures introduced by the DfEE then the fear for the future of schools must be that the already great shortage of people willing to volunteer as governors will continue to be a problem; headteachers may well continue the already noticeable move from concern

for individual development of both pupils and teachers into a much harder management style where success, measured in published results and the number of pupils on role, becomes more important than the traditional softer concern for the individual; class teachers will face greater insecurity and even more pressure on their time, resulting in an erosion of their personal and family lives and responsibilities.

The result of these combined changes may in fact be fewer young people deciding to train as teachers; fewer teachers wanting to take on the additional burden of headship; a failure to recruit sufficient governors to help heads and teachers deliver the high quality education demanded yet under resourced by the DfEE - a far cry from the laudable intent of target setting.

Target setting is both inevitable and necessary for the constant development of school improvement and school effectiveness. However, more time and thought need to be given to the implications of imposed target setting and a genuine dialogue needs to be undertaken involving all stakeholders - to do anything less may result in more chaos and unrest within schools in England and Wales that will directly undermine the very benefits sought by the development of target setting.

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Correction

New Era in Education, April 1998: Thank You, Elizabeth Wardle

‘There is simply no way’ should have read, ‘there is no simple way’.

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- d) Dr. Marianne Heiberg (Norwegian Institute of International Affairs, Oslo and now acting Director UN Relief and Work Agency for Refugees - Jerusalem) *"Practical exemplars of the need for that new thinking."*

December 31

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January 1

Uniquely Australian Cultural Holiday Programme!

January 2, 3, 4

- *Moral responsibility and concern for the common good*: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals. Introduced and chaired by Professor Brian Hill (Murdoch University).
- *Responsibility for the global environment*: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals. Introduced and chaired by Professor David Susuki.
This follows up WEF 30th Conference in Kuching 1996.
Care and compassion for others: Practical exemplars, forums and hypotheticals.
The conference will conclude late afternoon January 4th.

January 5

WEF Australian Council Day.

Are Standards an Answer to Educational Quality?

Mildred Haipt

Introduction

Quality has become a buzz word and a moving force in American Education during this last decade of the 20th century. As an indication of its importance, the term "educational quality" ranks as a descriptor in the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) research system. It is a concept which is helping to drive educational reform in the United States.

The traditional criteria for judging quality in education have been structural. They include variables such as teacher-pupil ratio, the educational level and credentials of teachers, funding and financing of education, salaries used to attract and retain teachers, condition of the physical plant, resources for teaching and learning, and program accreditation. Although these factors are still used for purposes of evaluation, the emphasis for assessing quality is shifting from input on the part of schools and teachers to educational goals and outcomes. The new emphasis on student achievement signals a major change which calls for a realignment of learning objectives, content, and assessment.

During this century, the United States of America has witnessed a number of educational reform movements. The latest efforts stem from the publication of "A Nation at Risk" in 1983. The report declared,

Our Nation is at risk. . . We report to the American people that while we can take justifiable pride in what our schools and colleges have historically accomplished and contributed to the United States and the well-being of its people, the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our very future as a Nation and a people. (National Commission on Excellence in Education. 1983:5)

The mediocrity of American education, noted in the report, shocked the nation's educators and reformers into the Standards Movement as a way of improving educational quality in the country.

A major impetus to standards-based education came from the Education Summit of 1989. The White House, under the administration of President George Bush, and the nation's governors agreed to a set of six goals to be attained by the year 2000. Goal 3 pertains specifically to student achievement and citizenship. It states,

By the year 2000, all students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency over challenging subject matter including English,

mathematics, science, foreign languages, civics and government, economics, arts, history, and geography, and every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our Nation's modern economy. (National Goals Panel. 1997:xv)

The Standards Movement set off a fierce debate over the federal government's role in establishing educational standards and examinations. Although the creation of a set of voluntary national standards remains a possibility, national examinations are unlikely. Each of the 50 states has increased its reform efforts, and taken the lead in defining content and performance standards and in establishing more rigorous requirements at every level of education.

In my own New York State, for example, educational reform has yielded formulation of 28 learning standards in seven subject areas for Grades 1-12. Members of the Board of Regents have not only approved high expectations of what students should know and be able to do, but they have also approved state-required local assessments. Implementation of the standards and assessments is mandated according to a designated timeline. Field testing of the new State assessment system begins this spring in selected schools. The mathematics test will be administered in Grade 4 and the English language arts and mathematics tests in Grade 8.

As the Standards Movement progressed, the public became involved in the debate about a national curriculum and testing. Generally, people subscribed to the belief that to get more, you need to expect more, and they favored raising expectations. Yet, they were unwilling to hand the responsibility of establishing standards over to a group of federal bureaucrats.

A 1994 Public Agenda survey disclosed a wide gap in thinking between the public, and the education experts and policy-makers. Diane Ravitch (1995) makes a significant point with respect to the differences between these two groups when she writes,

When leading educators advocate high standards, they often link them to new teaching methods, new forms of assessment, and other classroom innovations. But when the public endorses high standards, it means a return to traditional education, with emphasis on the basics, and end to social promotion, removal of disruptive students from the classroom, firm disciplinary policies, and clear standards for promotion and graduation. (p.172)

Results such as these indicate a need for public information and education about the Standards Movement and its impact on what takes place in the classroom and how that is evaluated in terms of student learning and achievement.

Standards and Educational Quality

Advocates of the Standards Movement maintain that Americans relate quality to high standards in things such as the production of foods and other products, medical care, and construction of highways, tunnels, and bridges. Thus, it seems logical to assume that the quality of education can also be improved by raising standards.

However, since its inception, the Standards Movement has received severe criticism. Marzano and Kendall (1996:7-9) identify several troublesome issues connected with the Movement. The first pertains to resources and suggests that the Standards Movement drains essential resources, such as updated wall maps, from education. Secondly, critics maintain that the new standards and testing will place additional burdens on students who traditionally do not achieve in school, thus creating a two-tier system. Thirdly, the Movement is seen by some as something (e.g. the Behavioral Objectives Movement of the 60s) which has already been tried and failed. Finally, both the nature of the content and the sheer number of standards have brought the Movement under heavy criticism and dimmed hopes that it can and will succeed.

In spite of opposition on the part of many, States have forged ahead with the reform. Their leadership obviously sees the Standards Movement as a viable and positive alternative for improving the quality of American education. In "The Fall and Rise of Standards-Based Education," Marzano and Kendall summarize important reasons why the Movement is a timely one and why it promises to strengthen the schools.

The first reason the authors cite is the erosion of the Carnegie unit and the common curriculum (p.9). The Carnegie unit was adopted by educators in the early 1900s to measure a fixed amount of content and time spent on a school subject. Originally, it represented a year's study in courses such as English, history, mathematics, science, Greek, Latin, and foreign languages for a specified period of class time each week. It constituted a type of standard followed by secondary schools throughout the country. With the proliferation of electives and other courses from the mid-40s to the 70s, however, the curriculum lost a certain uniformity and consistency in course content and time allotted to each subject. Critics now maintain that the variations in content and time spent on school

subjects have led to a watering down of the curriculum and a subsequent reduction in standards.

Grading practices in the United States have also undergone radical changes. School districts and teachers stress different variables when assigning numerical or letter grades to represent student achievement. Marzano and Kendall polled teachers and asked them whether or not they include effort, behavior, cooperation, and attendance in determining grades or academic ratings of students. The percentage of teachers who include these factors varied from kindergarten to Grade 10-12. For example, 7% of the kindergarten teachers surveyed consider behavior a factor in determining students' grades, while 14% of the teachers in Grades 10-12 include behavior; 8% of the kindergarten teachers consider attendance a factor, while 24% of the teachers in Grades 10-12 include attendance; 4% of the kindergarten teachers consider cooperation a factor, while 9% of the teacher in Grades 10-12 include cooperation; 31% of the kindergarten teachers consider effort a factor, while 36% of the teachers in Grades 10-12 include effort. Given these discrepancies, a grade from one teacher can mean something very different from a grade awarded by another teacher.

The shift in emphasis from what the teacher does, namely teaching, to student learning is regarded as the most *compelling argument for organizing educational reform around standards* . . . (Marzano & Kendall. 1996:12) It's not enough to provide students with more resources and educational opportunities, commonly referred to as "inputs," if the "outputs" do not result in student achievement. Standards-Based Education sets specific standards for students to strive for and measures the outcomes in terms of specific student learnings. Teachers and schools alike are held accountable for what is accomplished.

Finally, advocates of the standards-based approach maintain that countries with high levels of student achievement in learning employ policies and structures which are characterized by high standards in curriculum and attainment. Although the United States Constitution precludes a national curriculum for all the schools, carefully considered state and local standards can serve a similar purpose and expectation. In this global society, Americans have become more and more sensitive to the ratings received by the country's students in international academic assessments. They want American schools and teachers to do a much better job at educating youth.

As the new standards are introduced into the classroom, teachers in districts like New York City, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, Denver and Boston find that their day and the way they spend class time is much

more stringently regulated. Writing in the New York Times, Jacques Steinberg describes a public school in Manhattan where *the first 90 minutes of each teacher's schedule is synchronized with to-the-minute precision*. (January 25, 1998: 27) Teachers and students are expected to observe prescribed time allotments for each part of a given time block. To meet the literacy standard, for example, students might spend 30 minutes reading with a partner, 20 minutes in word study, and 30 minutes on silent reading and filling out their reading logs. In addition, the curriculum is directed to the attainment and measurement of content and performance standards. The students' progress towards the achievement of the standards is carefully noted by the teacher and documented by authentic means of assessment such as portfolios. Although this type of regimentation restricts the flexibility and decision-making of teachers, they note that the standards-based approach challenges the students and makes them think more.

Conclusion

Higher standards and testing are not a panacea for today's educational ills. Nevertheless, they do contribute to a necessary set of goals which provide direction and purpose to what is happening in classrooms across the country. They assist in designing curriculums, teaching materials, and teacher preparation programs. When developed at the grass-roots level with the help of the wider educational community, they tend to engage those responsible for their implementation. Publicly articulated standards draw the attention and energy of parents, teachers, administrators, and students to a core of common goals and help all students perform well.

Given the rapid changes in today's society, once achieved, the higher educational standards and testing cannot remain static. They, too, are in process of growing and changing. Observers have compared them to a moving target which is *not standing still and waiting for us*. (Resnick & Nolan. 1995:7) They need constant revisiting, reviewing, and revising to remain viable and effective components of educational quality.

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Mildred Hapt, Ph.D. is a past president of the US Section of WEF and professor of education at the College of New Rochelle, New York, USA. She received the 1998 annual Teacher Educator Award from the New York State Association of Teacher Educators

New Era in Education April 1998: Editorial

Another good leader!

I am suspicious of all this computerism. Life is not just about swishing information around.

James Hemming

Learning by Heart

Learning by Heart is a short pamphlet aimed originally at QCA, which calls on the government to recognise the importance of emotional education in the drive to raise achievement in schools. New thinking, its authors assert, is providing a clearer picture of the range of human capacities or intelligences. Basing its claims on the findings of research in Britain, USA and Europe, the report cites examples of good practice which demonstrate that emotionally literate pupils are not only more tolerant, more sensitive to others and better able to form better relationships, but also more likely to improve their scores in literacy and numeracy tests. In other words, the authors suggest, investing time and money in programmes of self-esteem, teaching pupils to recognise, name and channel their emotional energy will help raise academic standards.

Amongst its specific recommendations is a call to encourage schools to follow the example of successful

institutions by consciously developing a healthy emotional climate in which there is space for listening and reflection. It also seeks a greater acknowledgement of the emotional dimension of all subjects: a feeling for other cultures in geography, awe and wonder in science as well as greater emphasis on cross-subject relationships. As far as early learning is concerned, the paper calls for a revaluation of baseline assessment to include aspects of emotional learning including listening skills, the ability to form relationships and the capacity to play creatively.

The authors of the report call for individuals, departments and institutions to lend it their support by writing to QCA. Copies of the paper are available from

Kevin McCarthy,
Re:membering Education,
66 Beaconsfield Villas, Brighton,
BN1 6HE, UK;
tel/fax 01273 239311.

LETTER

Dear Editor,

The Dark Night of the Human Soul

In the April edition of your excellent journal my attention was captured by a paragraph in the article by Ian Lister and Sevasti Paidia on children's images of the enemy.

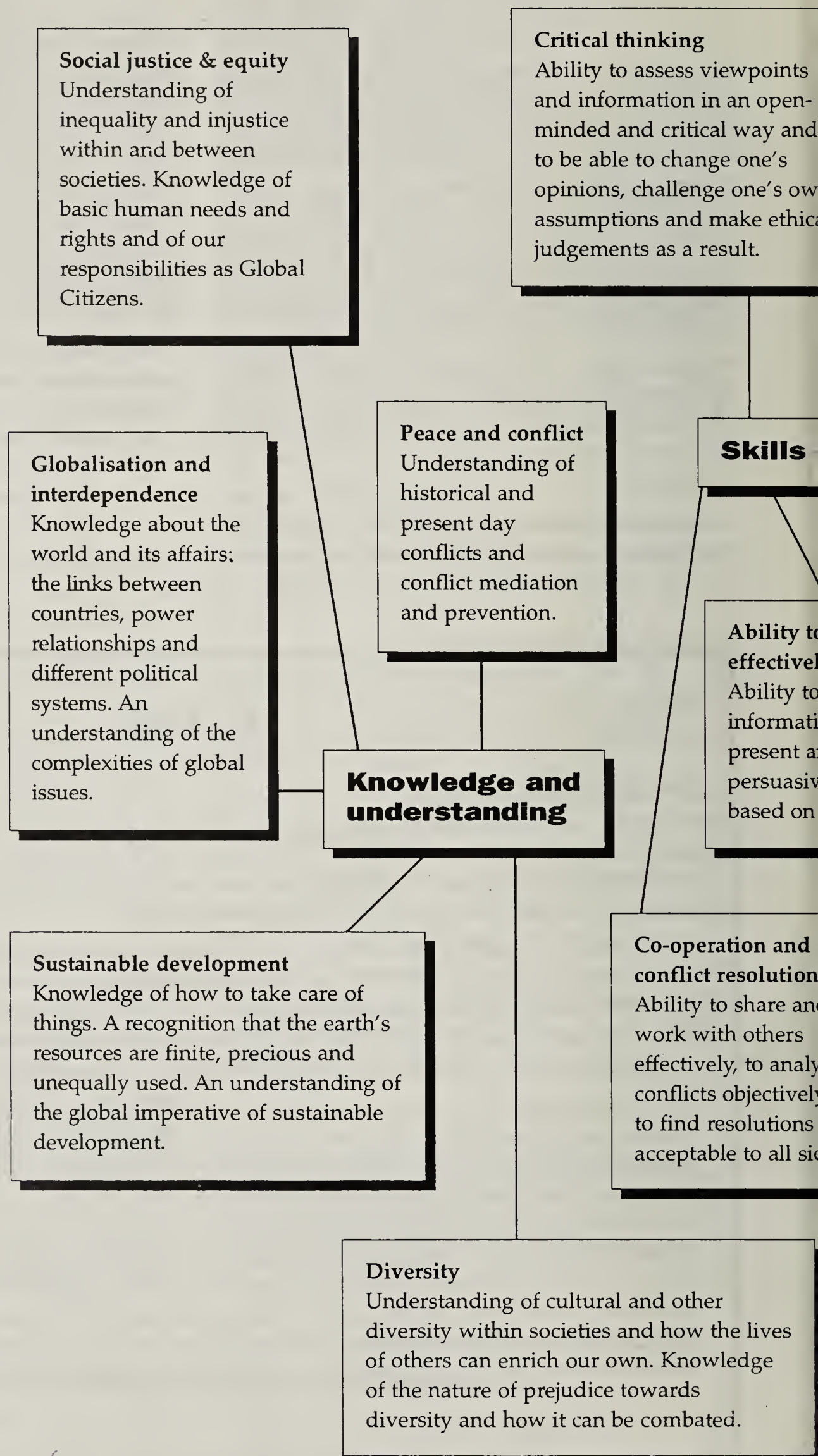
The authors list a number of atrocities, some of which were the unhappy but inevitable military consequences of a war in which both sides felt themselves in desperate danger which could only be averted by drastic offensive measures; in this they were to be differentiated from deliberate assault by a government upon members of its own citizenry because of unwelcome political opinions or racial characteristics, as was the case with, for instance, those transported to Auschwitz.

The offensive reactions generated by military aggression included, indeed, the aerial attacks upon German and Japanese cities that your correspondent mentions. An unwelcome feature of the paragraph in question is the implication generated by the mention only of German and Japanese towns that it was Britain and her allies who were the main perpetrators of aerial attacks upon cities. Your readers need to be reminded of the devastation of Bristol, Plymouth, Coventry, Swansea, Rotterdam, Amsterdam and many other British and Continental towns whose erstwhile flourishing centres were left as heaps of rubble where ambulance-men scrabbled to locate the living amongst the bodies. Your authors might also find it salutary to remember the attacks against the Philippines, Malaya and many Chinese population centres. It is unwise of us to trust our human selective, memories when drawing upon history to cast light in the dark night of the human soul.

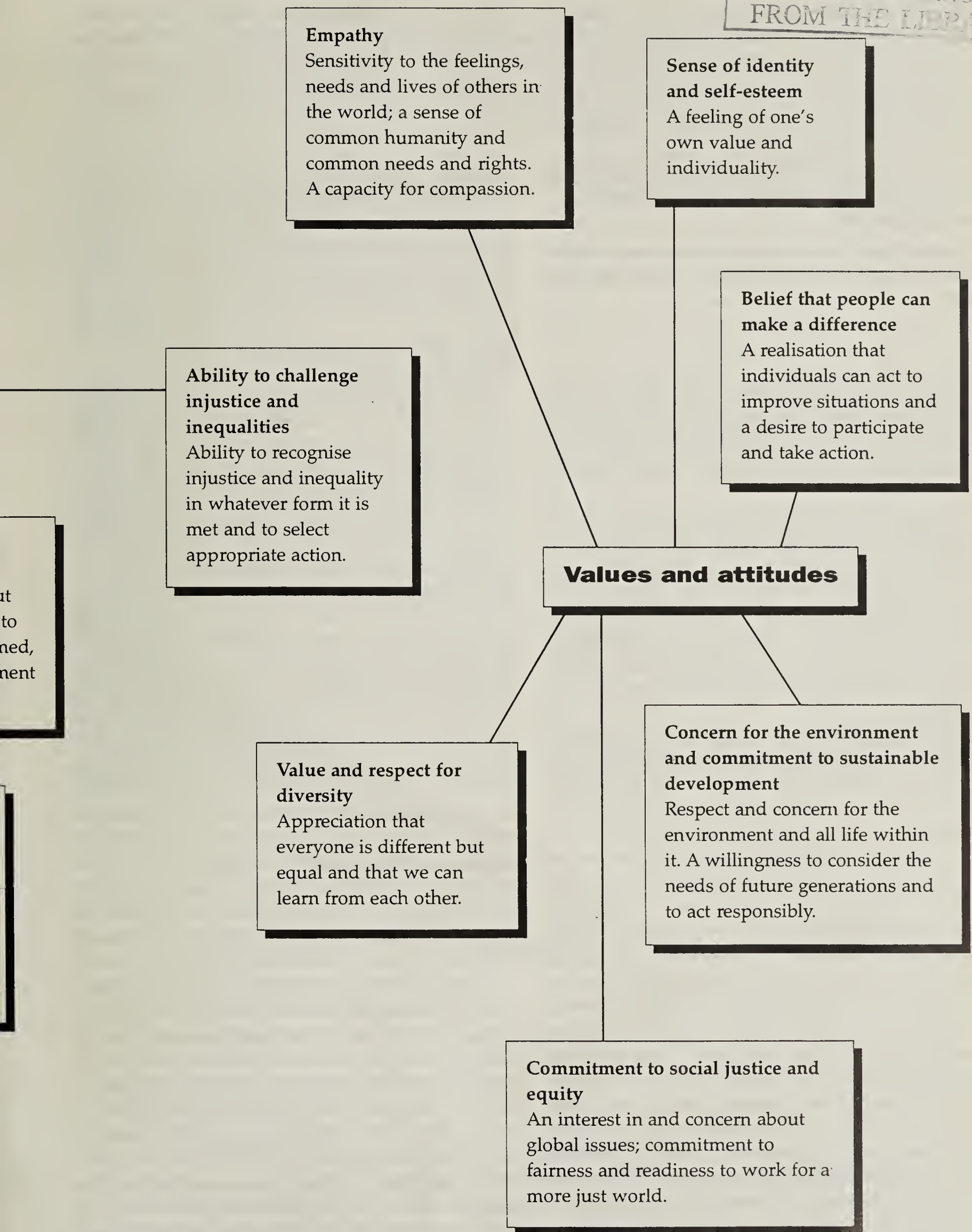
Patrick Butler, Richmond, UK

A Curriculum for Global Citizenship

In September 1997 Oxfam in U.K. produced this document to promote the idea of the Global Citizen. The diagram listing the key elements for responsible Global Citizenship is produced courtesy of Oxfam. If you would like a copy of the complete document and/or contribute to Oxfam's debate about how to move forward on this issue, please contact Hilary Atchison, Head of Development Education, Oxfam, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford, OX2 7DZ, England.



NOT TO BE REMOVED FROM THE LIBRARY



National Curriculum

Susan Cushion

The following assignment was written by a final year student before qualifying as a teacher for primary school teaching in the United Kingdom. The assignment is produced without any changes. The reason is to give a very clear indication to providers of teacher education that for our children to be brought up to care for the world and the people in it, teachers need to be educated to be reflective, questioning and innovative. If we do not do that, the future is bleak.

Future National Curriculum Reviews Should Not be About Predetermined Agendas but About Setting Agendas.

In light of such a statement, describe one or more of the changes you would like to see for the year 2000.

Although the 1995 National Curriculum is founded on some good ideas of continuity and holistic education it has failed to live up to some of these in practice and has removed the flexibility needed to teach children as individuals.

The desire to ensure that children receive a broad and balanced curriculum is important so that every child has an opportunity to enjoy and achieve in at least one aspect of school life. However the introduction of literacy and numeracy hours are likely to put restraints on the amount of time available for other subjects and strict attainment targets fail to provide for individual interests within a topic in most subjects.

The idea of a curriculum which covers all schools, so that changing school does not mean missing out on learning, is laudable but does not work in practice, partly because independent schools have no requirement to cover the curriculum, and partly because the coverage of topics through the key stages are not set for particular years and so while one school may study the Tudors in year 3, another may wait until year 6. In addition children in areas where the first-middle school system works may not be able to cover some topics unless all the feeder schools have collaborated in planning across Key Stage 2. One year 6 child whom I taught had studied the Tudors three times having changed middle school after year 5, and yet knew nothing about the local history of the area in which she lived. Another side to this as Kelly (1994a) points out is that *pupils do not actually receive the same curriculum even though all may officially be offered* it this is because the previous experience of different children affects how the knowledge is assimilated.

The continuity of learning across Key Stages is also a valuable aim but here again many secondary schools show little interest in the work carried out at primary

level and have not taken on board changes to the experiences of children in their intake. A visit to a secondary school science department showed that the lessons were mainly the same as those I sat in 13 years ago before the curriculum was produced, and the head of science admitted that they had little interest in primary school records because of the vast number of feeder schools and doubts about the validity of Standard Assessment Tasks (SATs) results.

The level descriptions based on teacher assessment should be retained as an idea as these relate to the skills which children develop rather than discrete knowledge and provide both children, teachers and parents the opportunity to monitor progress. This would be more realistic in terms of children's progress than the SATs exams now used in schools which do little to show the acquisition of skills as they mainly assess content and often contain questions which are ambiguous or have little likelihood of being covered by a teacher using the National Curriculum. The emphasis placed on the results of these tests and the financial implications for schools has also caused a few cases of blatant cheating in the SATs tests. A local school which a friend's child attended, sent home the SATs story title; the story was then corrected and sent home to be learnt with the spelling list. However in another school the children were intentionally not taught items from the paper in order to get the Special Education Needs (SEN) statements that the school felt the children needed. This shows that the constant desire to monitor school achievement causes many problems in producing an effective curriculum. In promoting teacher assessment the professionalism of teachers would also be valued.

Using the existing curriculum as a basis for change provides advantages such as a framework on which to work, a learning base which is already implemented together with assessment techniques and would probably not cause too much disruption in its alteration. However using the existing subject divisions fails to address the aims of education in a rapidly changing world. The development of computers has been so rapid that the technology is almost unrecognisable from that which was used when the 1988 curriculum was devised and even the 1995 curriculum fails to address the rapid spread of information technology into business, higher education and leisure. Trevor Baylis (1997), inventor

of the clockwork radio, stated that *convention is an obstacle to progress* and this means that in order to decide on a curriculum for the future we need to abandon the existing framework and start on a blank sheet using the ideas and experience of teachers involved with the children and with the ideas of the children themselves. As early as 1959 the Crowther Report stated that *the first quality that is needed to cope with such a world is adaptability (CACE 1959)*. This requires the learning of skills and application of skills rather than discrete knowledge. The changing needs of the working society must influence education although learning must also be promoted as an enjoyable experience for self-satisfaction or improvement. This means that a new curriculum should identify the skills, and their application, needed for career and personal learning which progress through the different Key Stages.

At nursery level children should be allowed to learn through play in order to find out about the world around them and to learn very basic social skills through playing with other children.

At Key Stage 1 children should continue the development of social skills through creative activities but also develop communication and literacy skills together with a basic awareness of numbers.

At Key Stage 2 a skills base should be developed - to be discussed further on - which provides the skills necessary for learning, living in a community and developing career skills

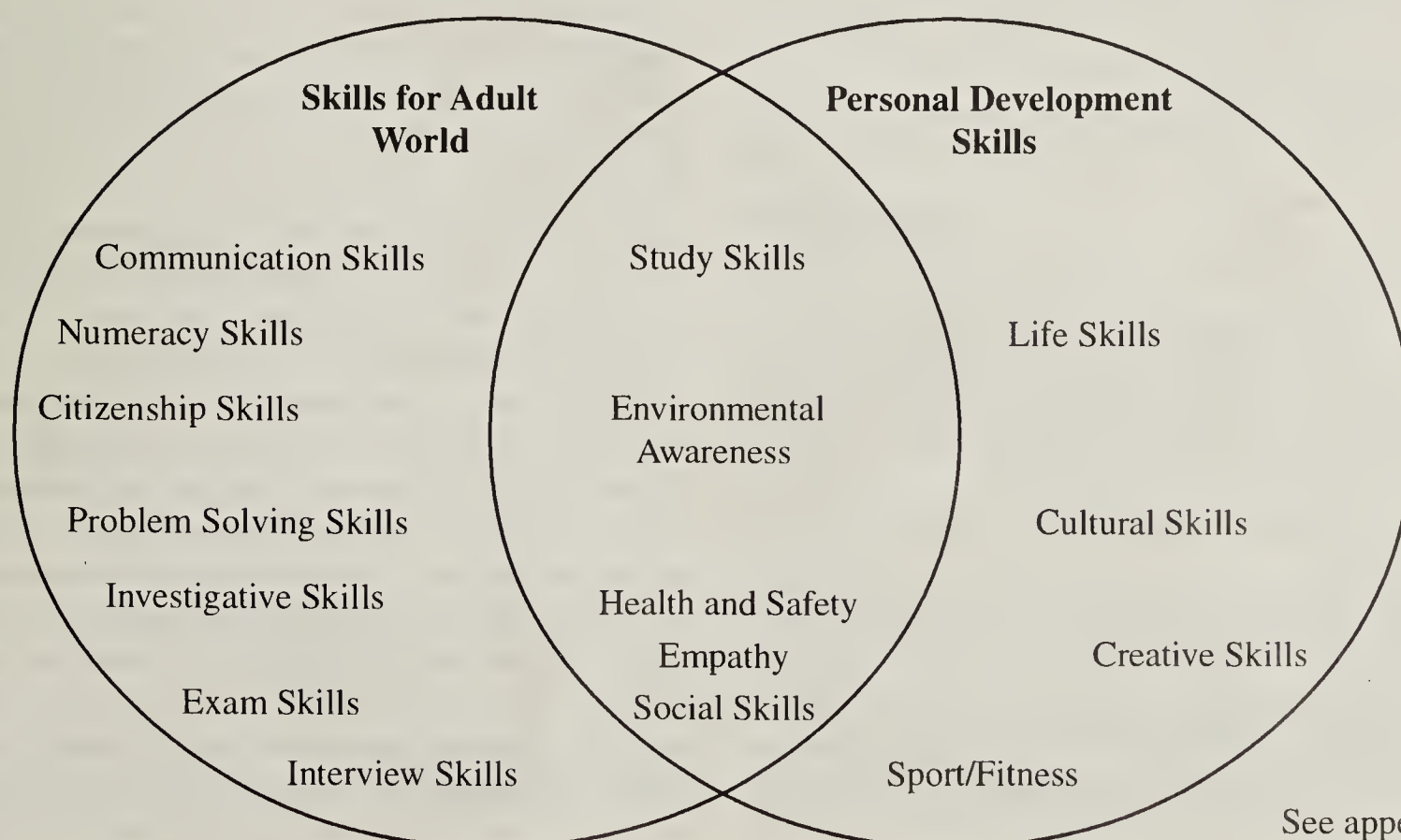
At Key Stage 3 children should continue to build on the skills using them to create a knowledge base which becomes more specialised at Key Stage 4 and even more so at university.

The skills base should contain a variety of skills for both living in society and personal development.

This model of the curriculum addresses several key ideas.

Young children gain most of their knowledge through play, so it is important that they are able to develop their natural curiosity through structured play schemes at nursery. Through this children not only learn about their surroundings but are also able to acquire social skills of being with other children, learning to share and responding to formal and informal environments. This process should begin in nursery and should continue as a major aim of education in Key Stage 1. This delaying of formal teaching in favour of child-centred discovery is backed by research for C4 Dispatches (1998) which found children in European countries, where formal learning is delayed, did better in international mathematics and science tests. *For young children, handling materials and using all the senses and being alive to the environment is an absolute basic (Hague 1998)*. Using the creative activities such as art, dance, drama and music at key stage 1 enables the children to explore ways of communicating alongside the more formal aspects of literacy which they will begin to develop and, by their nature encourage collaborative work and sensitivity to others.

By Key Stage 2 the children need to expand their skills base to take in a variety of career based and personal skills so that they develop holistically throughout the junior years. The very nature of the skills requires them to be implemented through activities in which children would gain knowledge, however *The stream of daily life experiences does not occur in categories such as mathematics or science. (Katz & Chard 1989)*. The important difference between a skills based and a subject based curriculum is that the emphasis on developing skills gives



See appendix

children the opportunity to learn about subjects which interest them and to respond to current events which have interest or relevance to them. This creates greater motivation and enjoyment of learning and in turn is likely to improve behaviour

By Key Stage 3 children are beginning to need a bank of knowledge to draw upon, and assuming that exams are unlikely to be completely abandoned, it is important that they have a skills base for acquiring, assimilating and communicating the knowledge.

The development of skills would work on Bruner's spiral model of learning (Carrington & Troyna 1988) with the progression in the level of skill increasing throughout schooling. For instance numeracy would progress from the awareness of what numbers are at Key Stage 1, through the development of mental arithmetic and applications of arithmetic at Key Stage 2, to advanced mathematical applications at A-level and degree level. Other skills or aspects of them may develop at later stages such as an awareness of political ideas.

In the acquisition of skills it is important that both the personal and societal aspects of learning are addressed. The central concern in the development of the 1988 curriculum was *to secure for all pupils in maintained schools a curriculum which equips them with the knowledge, skills and understanding that they need for adult life and employment.* (DES 1987). However this is not the only purpose of learning as childhood must be seen as *valid in itself* (Bruce 1987) and learning must be part of the enjoyable experience.

From a societal outlook there are several reasons for the emphasis on skills:

- Recently there have been reports of a skills shortage amongst graduates and school-leavers which is requiring firms to spend money on training that could otherwise be used for research or development of products and sales. (Ockenden 1998)
- There is a shortage of people who have the flexibility to work independently and collaboratively according to need, and to adapt to and learn new situations or skills. (Barton 1998)
- There are many problems in society which are blamed on a lack of community and moral values and which have promoted interest in citizenship and social skills (Barber 1998)

From a personal outlook there are also reasons to develop skills

- The ability to learn new skills, take up new interests and enjoy leisure time is an important part of being human and should enable children and adults to meet people with similar interests.
- Life-long learning has proved to be beneficial and in some industries essential (IEE 1998),

from a work perspective but also beneficial from a health perspective with research suggesting those who are mentally challenged throughout life have less risk of succumbing to Alzheimer's or related diseases

- Personal development challenges the trend of society to rely on the media for entertainment and produce a less fit nation.

The ideology behind the suggestions for a skills based curriculum have been developed through my own experiences both during my own education and through observing children on teaching practice. Having experienced a mainly traditional education myself and having seen a mainly progressive education on one teaching practice I feel that neither approach is entirely successful and that a mixture of whole class teaching and child-centred learning is needed for children to develop their potential. Related to this is the idea that different children learn in different ways. The skills of tying on in rock climbing are learnt by some children by examining a printed picture, others by watching a demonstration and others by doing, so it is necessary to provide a variety of approaches. On my final practice in a middle school I was acutely aware of the difficulties the children experienced due to problems in literacy. The content based nature of the existing curriculum meant that those children with difficulties in reading and writing found it very hard to complete curriculum areas in other subjects even if they were intelligent and interested in the subject. However literacy is not everything, as Smith (1998 (Peter)) points out *Zombies who are literate and who can add up in their heads are zombies for all that* and other subjects need addressing. On earlier teaching practices I experienced one class who could read and write but did so with little enthusiasm and the next year a different class which had been 'taught' to enjoy reading and writing through the use of interesting books, listening to stories, linking of subjects and presentation of their written work to the class. The class who enjoyed the activities had progressed much more quickly in most aspects of the curriculum and it is therefore important that the enjoyment of learning and the development of a range of communication skills is combined with social interaction and personal development skills.

I think two of the most important reasons for providing a skills based curriculum are motivation of the teacher and motivation of the child. In looking back at my education the teachers who inspired me most and encouraged me to learn most were those who were enthusiastic about what they were teaching and who they were teaching it to. This led to me taking up physics with a teacher who loved the subject, rather than biology where the teacher didn't think it was a subject that girls would do well in and showed no enthusiasm to teach it. In a content based curriculum

the teacher has to follow a fairly strict set of topics, while in a skills based one the teacher can draw on their own interests and are therefore more likely to be enthusiastic in teaching, as well as having a greater and more specialised knowledge.

In the same way a skills based curriculum gives the freedom needed to follow a subject which the children, or a group of the children are interested in. Most explanations of great successes with children who have special needs are based on taking the child or group to work on something that they are interested in, often not directly connected with the curriculum, but which gives a motivating medium through which to develop skills. Using the children's interests and ideas gives ownership of the learning back to the children and as well as developing process skills and social skills the children will be learning to enjoy learning. Having said this there will obviously be constraints in the provision of topics in the form of resources, the number of children and the fact that some children, and adults, find choosing topics or ideas very difficult.

Another important feature of skills teaching is that practical skills are valued as well as academic ones (Dessent 1987). Again this was a principal that was heavily subscribed to in both my primary and secondary education and provisions were made for those children who were less academic to develop practical skills as an area of excellence that was regarded as highly as academic achievement - hence the picture of 'old boys' WHAM outside the head's office! This emphasis allowed all children to maintain high self-esteem.

One of the most notable changes in the primary classroom since my own education is the inability of children to work independently following instructions and thinking for themselves. In addition they often find working collaboratively with other children difficult. This puts enormous demands on the teacher to maintain group relations and to carry out endless management tasks. By teaching children the skills required for working together and encouraging investigative and problem solving techniques to help independent learning more high-level interaction would be possible, increasing learning potential.

One of the areas highlighted by attempts to introduce group work is the lack of respect and awareness of the feelings of others in the group. While this is a difficult skill to teach it is possible through the development of empathy skills to help children begin to imagine what other people experience *We cannot understand others if we refuse to recognise their identity and respect their individuality but insisting on seeing them in our terms (Parekh 1985)*. The valuing and respect for others is vital to ensure children can see the consequences of actions they may take and begin to work together not only being aware of working

issues such as sharing but also wider issues of discrimination. Although PSE is advocated in the cross-curricular themes I have seen little evidence of structured work within the classroom, with time being restricted to dealing with individual cases as they arise and occasional assemblies where a widespread problem is identified.

In conclusion I have suggested changes to the whole ethos of the curriculum by moving to a skills-based curriculum which enables all children to receive the same education in regards to their skills but not necessarily their knowledge, which depends on the previous ideas of the children combined with the education they receive. A skills approach is also advocated by Kelly (1994b)

The important feature of this kind of common curriculum is that what is common about it is not the content selected for every pupil's educational diet but the principles and processes underlying the selection of that content, that pupils will not all receive or be offered the same subject-matter, but they will be offered and receive the same education, the same assistance in the development of their capacities to the full.

The development of skills in a cyclical process should enable teachers to cater for the needs of all children, starting with their interests and knowledge as a basis for building skills. The main drawback with regards to the present political view of education is that assessment of effectiveness will be reliant on teacher's professional judgement rather than publishable tables of scores, but education is *not about regurgitation, even if that is easier to standardise so that progress can be seen to be made.* (Smith, Pat, 1998).

In short there is a choice to be made between preparing children for adaptability in adult life through learning process skills while providing an enjoyable learning experience, or having a curriculum based on a being able to grade children through the acquisition of arbitrary knowledge which is often irrelevant once it has been reproduced in an exam.

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Appendix - expansion of skill categories

These are intended to be suggestions of the content of skill categories rather than be definitive and would need greater consideration by a range of people including the children acquiring them.

Communication Skills — literacy, oracy, information technology, presentation

Numeracy Skills — what is number, what is it used for and how

Citizenship Skills — politics, legal system, justice, community, global issues, current affairs

Problem Solving Skills — application of skills, logical thinking, reasoning

Investigative Skills — questioning, planning, hypothesising, investigating, evaluating

Exam Skills — following instructions, making arguments and points, conciseness, pacing

Interview Skills — assertiveness, confidence, career/establishment research

Study Skills — note-taking, skimming, proof reading, library skills, IT

Environmental Awareness — evaluation of causes/effects, actions to be taken

Health and Safety affecting children at home, school, in the future

Empathy Skills — develop understanding of the effects of actions and of bias, stereotyping and discrimination

Social Skills — co-operation, sharing, taking, friendship, behaviour, adapting to situations, handling emotions, respect

Life Skills — domestic skills, house maintenance, car maintenance, budgeting, banking, skills for careers and university life

Cultural Skills — identification of personal beliefs and sensitivity to others, developing respect

Creative Skills — literature, art, music, dance, drama

Sport and fitness — active participation, acquiring of skills for variety of sports and fitness Activities

Some of the categories may overlap in skills.

Susan Cushion has just completed a four year BEd Honours course, specialising in the education of 7-11 year old children. She will be starting her first teaching appointment in September.

Mary King: A Tribute

It was with great sadness that we older members of WEF heard of the death of Mary King. Her husband, Raymond King, was a stalwart among modern educators and the two of them, working in harmony, formed a team of profound influence. Raymond was the dedicated and sensitive Headmaster of Wandsworth Comprehensive School, where every pupil was valued as a unique individual in the process of discovering and developing personal powers within the context of friendly and encouraging relationships with others. The focus of the school, to quote Raymond, was 'success in proportion to effort'. The slow pupil who acquired a few simple skills was, at Wandsworth, thought to be as much worthy of praise as the bright ones who swiftly climbed the ladder of achievement. Mary's role was to be a kindly, supportive presence with a quick eye for spotting where improvements could be made. She was both gentle and determined. We remember her with love and gratitude.

James Hemming

WEF in Germany: A Celebration of Seventy-five Years

Professor Herman Rohrs very kindly submitted the article written in German by Professor Wolfgang Hinrichs, which is a history of the German Section of WEF.

The following is a very brief summary of the article in English. I am extremely grateful to my colleague, Pat Parry, for providing this summary very promptly so that it could be included in this issue. We hope that excerpts from the article will appear in later issues of New Era in Education.

Editor

The World Education Fellowship held its 75th anniversary celebrations in Heidelberg.

The German Section of the World Education Fellowship, (previously the New Education Fellowship), celebrated on 8th October 1997, a year late, its foundation in 1921. The formal celebrations, led by the President of the Bundestag, Rita Süßmuth, were held in the Pädagogische Hochschule Heidelberg and were followed by an evening reception. The morning consisted of lectures and the afternoon workshops.

In her speech of welcome, the Bundestag President thanked those present for the pedagogic engagement of the German Speaking Section of the World Education Fellowship both in the past and in the present, and wished them well in the future.

The areas covered by lecturers, course leaders and participants were as follows :

- The international mission of the Fellowship past and present.
- Problems of social integration.
- Family-oriented support for young people in school.
- 'Free' schools - 'formal' schools.
- Teacher training.

The international mission of the Fellowship past and present.

The honorary President of the German Section, Hermann Röhrs, gave a speech entitled 'Thoughts on the Significance of the World Education Fellowship: Past and Present'. It emphasised the positive, but was anything but a gilding of the history of the Fellowship. It was a description of the high, low and lowest points of that history and culminated in a five point programme for the future. In his speech he elaborated on the following :

- A pedagogic call to action and the new era after the First World War (1921 - 1933)
- The annihilation of the Fellowship by National Socialism (from 1933)

- A new pedagogical beginning in Germany (1950 - 1968)
- A new direction (from 1968)
- Objectives 1997

The five objectives outlined by Hermann Röhrs were these:

- Mutual contact with schools employing the new pedagogy with common events, review of theory and practice and attempts to clarify 'acute pedagogical problems'.
- Much more thorough efforts to understand state educational reform with particular reference to educational establishments outside the system, the bringing-up of small children, family pedagogy etc.
- A concern with youth problems - aggression and radicalism of the extreme right.
- A 'policy of peace'.
- Mutual criticism and the correction of theory and practice within the Fellowship world-wide.

Problems of social integration (poverty and the integration into 'normal' education of the physically handicapped).

The discussions consisted of the following:

- Childhood and poverty. Gerd Iben described the history and present situation of research into this topic. He warned that complacency was misplaced and that up to 45% of Germans lived in poverty or near-poverty.
- Pädagogisches Zentrum Ingolstadt - Integration of physically handicapped children. The talk covered the foundation of the centre in the late seventies, designed as a meeting place for young and old as well as a place of education and training and the creation of an educational advisory service and (later) a therapy centre. A pedagogic academy was formed in 1986, an integrated kindergarten on the Montessori model in 1989, an integrated creche in 1987 and a school-linked kindergarten in 1992. The

speakers went on to discuss theoretical leitmotiv and practical difficulties faced.

Family-oriented support for young people in school.

The following topics were covered:

- A programme to integrate family and school in the Heidelberg area.
- The practicalities of running the above programme.

'Free' schools - 'formal' schools. (Working group)

The points covered included :

- Authentic examples and personal variations.
- Taking stock and outlying perspectives for the future.

Teacher training.

This group worked from the conviction that teacher training is a significant factor in the shaping of tomorrow's schools. Discussion was intense. Some issues are reported and covered areas such as: theory/practice; ideal/reality; discipline/pedagogical correction.

Three 'demands' arose from the discussion:

- Student teaching sessions should be observed by Higher Education tutors and the observations should be discussed with the students.

- The responsibilities of being a teacher should be taught to student teachers: anthropological, psychological, ethical etc. as well as didactic/method-related.
- Teachers should also be taught about questions of discipline and 'psychological hygiene'.

One particular 'problem area' was defined:

- Given the problems of 'mass' study, students need to be supported in their efforts to develop personal identity and professional competence.

Two more 'demands' evolved from this discussion:

- Future teachers should have a grasp of more general issues, not just subject knowledge.
- Students need to be helped to develop their personal identity and self-critical, professional confidence during their study time.

The celebrations were thus a re-assertion of what had been achieved in the past, an honest look at current issues, and a strong, clear desire to take action, in line with the philosophies of WEF.

**All the members of WEF wish
the German Section well.**

Editor

Access and Quality

Mr. Power said it was also necessary to bear in mind the still prevailing inequality of access to, and quality of, higher education between various regions of the world. According to UNESCO's statistics, the discrepancy between the less-developed and more-developed regions of the world was about one to five. Despite the efforts to expand access made by countries in these regions (in the case of some countries as much as 50%), the situation had remained almost unchanged in the last twenty years. Whether international or national, increasing income inequality and exclusion was a major constraint to sustaining economic growth, human development, social cohesion and peace.

He said: 'The Universal Declaration of Human Rights affirms that access to higher education must be on the basis of merit, not privilege. We are now beginning to move backward with the burden more on the parent of the student, with access based more on paying for higher education, but also the extent to which the capacity to pay is becoming the prime determinant of access to quality higher education, contravening the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Thus we want to monitor not only the cost of higher education, but also the extent to which the capacity to pay is becoming the prime determinant of access to quality higher education, within and between countries. In establishing a new UNESCO Institute for Statistics, we must develop indicators of equality as well as cost.'

(Mr. Power is Colin Power, Assistant Director-General for Education, UNESCO).

Source: UK Higher Education and UNESCO (p.10), published in spring 1998 by Association of University teachers and UNESCO 50th Anniversary Committee (UK). A report of the conference held on 5 December 1997, Manchester, UK.



**Saturday
10 October 1998**

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Enquiries to:

David Turner 0181 245 4561 or Mark Jones 01277 811 250

Section Report : WEF GB

David Turner

WEF(GB) held its regular summer meeting on 4th July at the kind invitation of Margaret Johnson. The beauty of these occasions is the opportunity to discuss matters of interest to members at leisure, and without excessive formality, so the formal agenda was dispensed with.

Sneh started the meeting by giving a brief report of the progress of *New Era in Education*, including a reflection upon the lunch for the editorial team held at the Charing Cross Hotel earlier in the summer. That had led to a couple of initiatives, including the possibility of having guest editors for specific themes in the future.

There was some discussion of the WEF(GB) initiative of sending an open letter to the Government of the UK, which had also been published in the *New Era in Education*. Discussion moved on to discuss some of the initiatives which the Government has taken, especially the emphasis now being placed upon early childhood education. Although this has to be seen as positive, and in line with everything WEF has always promoted, concern was expressed over whether this would indeed result in a more sensible approach to the early years of primary schooling, or whether it was likely to lead to an illegitimate regimentation in the pre-school years.

This difficulty of weighing up whether the initiatives of government should be seen as positive or negative was investigated further with reference to the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) initiatives to promote a "research-based" profession. Some concern was expressed over whether the activities which were being promoted could be described as "research" at all.

David Turner had proposed that this area of promoting teacher/researchers in a spirit of the WEF should be taken up in the *New Era in Education*, and his paper will be published in the August(?) issue. This will be followed by a campaign to make teachers aware of the *New Era in Education* as a possible forum for publication of results.

The meeting broke for lunch, and discussion continued, through and after lunch, but less

formally. Central themes included the need to emphasise the group, and collective responsibility in education, and the need to ensure the emotional and spiritual education of young people, and not merely the intellectual. In different ways, the question of ensuring the "right" interpretation of ideas recurred. The example of "free activity" was discussed. Originally promoted by WEF (or NEF as the organisation then was) this involved the introduction of an element of pupil choice, but within a structured and disciplined framework. Taken up officially, it was left to teachers to interpret "free activity" as they chose, without any of the theoretical underpinning, the result was chaotic. This officially promoted anarchy was then laid at the door of "progressive" educators, and used as a stick to beat valuable reforms. Similar themes were examined in a number of historical cases: over the last twenty years the place of theory in education has been eroded, but the dangers in assuming that programme names are self-explanatory cannot be overestimated.

At the end of the Afternoon, discussion returned to the TTA proposals, and funding, for a research-based profession. It was agreed that it would be a good idea for WEF(GB) to organise a workshop for teachers on how to prepare a bid for TTA money for their research. This would combine practical advice on how to prepare bids, combined with advice on how to promote research which would be in line with WEF principles. In this way, WEF(GB) could make an effort to ensure that the term "research-based profession" came to be something of positive value.

David Turner
is the chairperson of WEF GB

Please refer to the announcement
on page 38

Progressive Education

This is a brief extract selected by Klaus Neuberg from John Stafford Archer's biography of Nikki Archer, former Head of The King Alfred School, Hampstead. The King Alfred School has been a long standing member of the WEF GB. A book review will appear in a later edition. Editor

In common with other heads, Nikki had always deprecated the label 'progressive' as applied to schools like King Alfred. It had been introduced in the early years of the 20th century to designate a small but growing number of independent schools dedicated to a new and more liberal form of education than was then available in either the independent or maintained sectors of the educational system.

The term is beset with problems of definition, having a wide range of connotations not exclusively to do with education itself. In the political context it has been appropriated by the Left and it's regarded as ipso facto suspect by the Right, despite the fact that the Right have generated policies they would not hesitate to distinguish by the self-same epithet 'progressive'.

In the educational context it has been applied variously to comprehensive secondary and primary schools and to several enterprises collectively known as 'alternatives in education' comprising 'free' or 'community' schools in inner urban areas, 'schools without walls', and children's rights workshops. Confusion is worse confounded by the grouping of these variants under the same umbrella as the independent progressive schools, since the latter themselves represent a wide range of educational philosophies, albeit sharing certain aims in common. This range was suggested by W. A. C. Stewart as extending from the liberal to the anarchic, and it is then an unfortunate legacy of the labelling process that it is the excesses of the anarchic end of the continuum that have done some harm to the public image of progressive schools as a whole.

The image itself has several versions but usually includes the suggestion that schools run on a 'do-as-you-please' basis, that there is no formal curriculum, classes are optional, academic standards are correspondingly low, and there is a lack of respect for authority. Whilst this stereotype may have no parallel in any actual school, some

of its components do exist in a very small minority of schools.

The conflicting ideologies of progressive educators are part of a larger conflict between progressive and traditional schools. This, in turn, is a special case of the inveterate conflict between freedom and authority, between individual and self-determination and social control. The question of the degree of permissiveness that is optional and the degree of restraint that is necessary in the raising of children, whether in the family or in the school, is one of the most important in education today and one which remains largely unresolved.

... The French philosopher Rousseau was probably the greatest single influence on English progressive education. In *Emile* his published views on education, Rousseau asserted that the aim of all education should be the freedom and happiness of the Child.

Childhood, he argued, was not simply a step to adulthood, but an important stage in its own right ... Nikki had reservations about Rousseau and felt that the freedom of which he spoke was only part of the story:

His freedom, it seems to me, was an excellent example of a theory following and justifying the Desire to act in a particular way. I was to meet this phenomenon quite often during the '60's and '70's when it was used to explain, defend and sanctify every conceivable self-indulgence of living both in education and in society at large.

I believe that unless the freedoms which are sought are based on and shaped by a basic philosophy which includes and recognises the rights and needs of others, those freedoms can become a form of tyranny ... Recognition of and acceptance of 'the other' as equally important must be at the heart of growth to adulthood and therefore of education.

REVIEWS

Modern Times? Work, Professionalism and Citizenship in Teaching, by Martin Lawn, 1996.

The Falmer Press, London UK and Bristol, PA, USA ISBN 0 7507 495 0 cased, ISBN 0 7507 0 496 9 paper.

The title of this book will mislead some. As Martin Lawn himself writes (pages 4/5).

The essays in this book deal with different aspects of the education system since the 1920's the tentative and questioning nature of the idea, expressed in the title, is used deliberately not only to suggest a powerful descriptor of a distinctive time in education yet to allow for ambiguity within an analysis which has moved from a critical engagement with the period, looking for oppositional or historically invisible agencies to a recognition that the silences and invisibilities extended to teachers and their work.

I do not know what ambiguities Mr. Lawn had in mind, but two that occurred to me at that early stage of reading were: is the book about the notions of work, professionalism and citizenship as part of the curriculum, or is it about teaching as a job? Except for one of the 11 chapters, the author's principal concern is with teaching as a job. Seven of the chapters are revised versions of papers that have been published in various places, spanning the years 1985-1995. The odd chapter out is about the

rise of a possible pedagogical shift in the state school system ... [particularly elementary and secondary modern schools] ... through development of the discussion method in and around schools, in the 1940's and 1950's.

For the rest, the author complains that it is difficult, if not impossible, to tell what is really happening inside schools and classrooms, and that it is necessary to rely on statements about what should happen. I have to confess to some surprise about that. There is, certainly since 1945, a considerable library of descriptions of primary education in operation written by teachers (mainly headteachers), researchers and HM inspectors. Of course some, especially descriptions of single schools, describe what was then thought by the writer and, presumably, the publisher to be *good practice*. It was certainly not wise to judge primary education through the 1970 log book of one school. If the then headteacher really was just coming to grips with having teachers on different scales, one wonders what he had been doing for the previous decade; and the Plowden Report, published in 1967 and well before the 1990's,

commended the practice of primary school teachers adopting curricular specialisms and advising their colleagues. It is true that there is more in-service training now than formerly, but as a primary school teacher in the late 1940's I attended courses during school time and in the early evenings: the habit did not suddenly appear post-1988. If I have understood this book correctly, the argument put is that between about 1920 and the early 1980's, teachers and teaching were controlled by the State by a devolved system of government similar to that used in controlling the colonies: by means of local hierarchies and by precepts, barely expressed but well understood by all concerned. Since the mid-1980's, central control has become overt and more determinist but detailed control now resides within the individual school. So far as primary schools are concerned, the movement is away from the predominance of the teacher isolated in a classroom towards whole school practices and relationships; and with (in secondary schools also) a widening range of people other than teachers employed in schools, including some — classroom assistants in an increasing number of schools — who do work previously reserved for teachers.

I recognise the outlines of the changing scene, and Martin Lawn acknowledges from time to time the fact that teachers are themselves members of society and through both their work and their broader membership affect what the state can do and does do. Nevertheless, I sense that he underestimates the influences of teachers, individually and collectively, in the shaping and re-shaping of the education service. As recent years have shown differently in Scotland and England, the education system, including its Government ministers, may not change more than teachers are willing and able to allow.

Professor Norman Thomas
Visiting Professor, University of Hertfordshire

Literacy in Nursery Education, by Robin Campbell

Trentham Books 1006, 67 pp; £5.95. ISBN 1 85856 0674 0.

Although a slim volume, this book gives many examples of activities and ideas for teachers and all adults involved in the introduction of literacy in the numeracy classroom. Its main aim is to demonstrate that, although teachers have long acknowledged the premises of reading readiness and the need for

appropriate pre-reading and pre-writing activities, there are many everyday literacy-related activities which can be used to enhance the process by which young children become readers and writers. It explores the importance of good adult-child interactions and the role of meaningful partnership with parents and the child's home as a source of literacy experiences.

Each of the seven short chapters examines a separate area of the classroom or curriculum and how adults can effect the most literacy-related experiences through play and conversation as well as the more formal aspects of mark-making, rhyme and phonics.

As students of early childhood development we are always looking for ideas, tips on teaching and examples of good practice. The author has drawn all these threads together in one book and for those looking for insight into how children acquire literacy through play and classroom activities, it is an excellent collection of observations and examples.

This is a book I would gladly recommend to newly qualified teachers, bursary nurses, classroom assistants and anyone embarking on the introduction of literacy to young children in the nursery.

Pamela Hulbert

Retired Nursery Headteacher, Bedfordshire, UK

Children for Social Change: Education for citizenship of street and working children in Brazil, by Anthony Swift.

Educational Heretics Press. Mastaprint Ltd., Sandiacre, Nottinghamshire, 1997. 194 pp; £4.95. Paperback ISBN 1-900219-09-3.

Children for Social Change: Education for citizenship of street and working children in Brazil draws on Anthony Swift's study for UNICEF - Brazil into the social mobilisation for children's rights. Swift has also written **Brazil: the Fight for childhood in the cities** and co-authored **Broken Promises - the World of Endangered Children**.

Brazilian 'street children', whether working to supplement meagre family incomes or abandoned, are associated in most people's minds with severe deprivation and social rejection: with increasing regularity the deplorable 'eliminating' activities of Rio and Sao Paulo 'death squads' hit the headlines. In Brazil itself, street children, some as young as five, are widely regarded by the public as the dregs of society, 'bandits', posing a threat to social and political stability. Swift's book documents from an historical perspective the remarkable transforming achievements of the radical educational programme introduced by Padre Bruno Sechi 25 years ago, and developed since then by 'street educators' and 'animators', in the city of Belem at the mouth of the River Amazon.

Sardinian by birth, Sechi trained for the priesthood in the mid-1960's in Sao Paulo. His educational philosophy is grounded in liberation theology i.e. in the conviction that enduring social change can only be brought about 'through a process of social transformation most crucially from the oppressed themselves' (Swift). The author summarises Sechi's guiding principles: the educator's role in that of an 'enabler' or 'facilitator': educators should 'cultivate respect, love affection, acceptance, solidarity'; whilst children should be active participants - rather than passive recipients - in their own learning, the educator should share in the learning process and 'undergo transformation'. Children should be 'contributors to the human community'; they should be encouraged to 'explore the potential of political action', become involved in 'social mobilisation' and the transformation of society for the common good: consequently, 'the idea of grass roots nuclei became a key concept in the organisation of children throughout Brazil'. Whilst there are a number of references in the text to Maria Montessori, Sechi's aims and methods appear to have more in common with those of Don Bosco and Leonardo Boff; his children's work co-operatives adopted Paulo Freire's 'conscientization' enquiry and awareness, creating techniques.

'Popular education is widely used in Latin America today as a tool for creating cultural awareness, for promoting self confidence and esteem and for empowering women's grassroots groups to engage in community development and political agitation.

In the first chapters of **Children for Social Change** (there are 14 in all), Swift traces the evolution of Sechi's educational programme, from the initial phase of educators forging links with Belem street children, to the establishment of the Movement of the Republican of Emmaus (formerly the Republic of Small Vendors), which he describes as 'a key pioneer of the participation and organisation of poor community children'. The final chapters focus on street children's involvement in social action e.g. the planning of, and active participation in, national meetings of street boys and girls. As Swift notes in the introduction: 'A vigorous National Movement of Street Boys and Girls has emerged, whose members - poor community children and educators - have taken a prominent role in defining children's rights and responsibilities, securing legal rights and developing an educational experience through both educator and child learn to exercise citizenship'.

This book makes fascinating reading; the author writes lucidly from personal experience and observations in Belem and other Brazilian cities. Whilst a bibliography would have been useful, the numerous lengthy transcripts of children's and educator's comments are particularly valuable and informative - sometimes amusing! Swift's colour

photographs, presenting positive images of groups of children working and at meetings, are very different from those normally used by the media.

The actual achievements of the children themselves, in promoting their own learning, in adopting measures to cope effectively with the harsh realities of everyday street life and in endeavouring to improve the working and living conditions of others, are extremely impressive, on occasions almost unbelievable. At a time when anti-social behaviour and 'exclusions' pose ever-greater problems in our schools, Swift's book - emphasising the need to create a positive ethos, to promote caring and mutual respect and to 'engage with' rather than 'reject' and exclude - makes thought-provoking reading. It is a 'must' for those interested in comparative education systems. "Children for a wealth of information for aid agencies concerned with the plight of marginalized children. I have no reservations about endorsing the recommendations on the cover of the book: 'The most experienced among us have much to learn from this unusual book. Its combination of old and new experience offers models for other countries, including Britain' (Barbara Kahan, child care expert) and 'this book will help strengthen the growing number of social actors world-wide who are concerned with the rights of children' (Agop Kayayan, UNICEF Representative to Brazil).

Dr. Jane Benton

Part-time Lecturer in the
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Nottingham Trent University;
Hon. Research Fellow, Glasgow University
Geography Department;
researcher over 30 years on development
issues in the Andean countries.

The Holistic Educators: Education for the 21st Century, by Cara Martin.

1997, 62 pp £7.95 ISBN 1-900219-08-5.

This book is a burst of light shining through the educational fog in which we are struggling. Formal educational practice is still too much caught up with the supposition that teaching is about doing things *to* children instead of doing things *with* them.

As this book is pertinently concentrating on education in the 21st Century, I feel the urge to glance back on the educational ideas that distorted thinking at the dawn of the present century, in spite of the wisdom of a few such innovations as Marie Montessori. One widespread, false axiom was 'Little children should be seen but not heard'. Another source of popular quotation was the biblical advice: 'He that spareth the rod hateth his son' (Proverbs xii 24), or, in popular parlance, 'Spare the rod and spoil the child'.

Elsewhere, we read of education as 'bending the twig' as though a child's development depended on external force.

People may claim that all that nonsense is now in the past. But is it? The present mania for testing is all about hammering the young into shape instead of nourishing their individual powers towards personal and social fulfilment. That, as this book shows, is the proper aim for the future. This is not wild progressivism, as some would have us believe, it is to work with the grain of human creativity.

The importance of **The Holistic Educators** at our present stage of things is that, in a brief, punchy book, Cara Martin concentrates on precisely what our educational task now is: to nourish every individual child in his/her striving towards self-fulfilment, physically, intellectually, emotionally, aesthetically, socially and spiritually. The National Curriculum is stumbling about to find time for it all. But it cannot be done on a bit-by-bit basis. The future calls for holistic education through which the formative experiences are offered in multi-faceted patterns, we should reach towards the whole child all the time.

The young react with excitement and co-operation to holistic approaches; they wince away from unstimulating narrowness. Why do so many of the Young bunk-off schooling? Because they are bored, or because they feel rejected and under-valued by what they are asked to do. In making the necessary changes, parents and teachers need a sense of common purpose and a clear direction. This book makes a valuable contribution towards attaining this.

In conclusion, I must draw attention to a problem in the text, for me, and probably others, which is also part of the current debate about our role in the Cosmos. Cara Martin rightly stresses the mystery and wonder of existence but she seems to feel the need to account for this by referring to a controlling spirit steering things - a sort of cosmic Helmsman, a God that is. I suggest that the advance of life of Earth, all the way from early bacteria to highly conscious **Homo Sapiens**, is the outcome of creative energy that is inherent within Nature and ourselves. To seek to explain multiple galaxies, the beauty of Spring, and the smile on the face of a baby by saying 'God did it' does not get us very far. Things are not that simple. But that is just a footnote to an excellent introduction to the renewal of education now so urgently needed. The energy and imagination for this are indeed parts of a universal creative force however we describe it.

Dr. James Hemming

James is a psychologist
who has worked in industry
and counselling as well as in education.

His books include
Teach Them to Live
and **The Betrayal of Youth**.

Models of Learning - tools for teaching

by Bruce Joyce,

Emily Calhoun and David Hopkins, 1997, Open University Press, Buckingham, Paperback ISBN 0335 1 999 09, Price £14.99.

If I were again the headteacher of a primary school, I would be pleased if the teaching and support staff decided to use this book as the text for our next year or so of school-based in-service training. The authors describe a number of ways of teaching and learning, bonding these two aspects of school life so that the one merges imperceptibly into the other. They draw on examples (scenarios) of school practices observed in America, Asia and Europe, including the UK, and from primary and secondary schools. They identify the phases of activity required by each model, reflect upon its implications and discuss the research that leads them to believe that these ways of teaching improve pupils'/students' learning. The particular models they choose each represents a wider family of similar models.

Some strong messages pervade the text. It is important to use a variety of models according to what the teacher knows of the children and the intention of the work. Each model has contributions to make at all stages of schooling, for strong and weak learners and across the curriculum. The models are not exclusive, in the sense that even one lesson may employ more than one model, though one dominates. The learners should be made aware of the learning process (model) they are engaged in and of the purposes of the activity. They should reflect upon the effects of what they have done. The current discussion about whole class teaching and group work is unhelpfully conducted as though about a dichotomy.

The families of models are: information processing - the seven members include inductive thinking (e.g. developing classification skills) and mnemonics (aimed at improved memorisation of information); social learning - again seven members, including group

investigations and role playing; personal - the five members include non-directive teaching to building self-understanding and self-esteem, and classroom meetings to increase awareness of group membership and responsibility behavioural - six members including programmed learning, simulation and direct teaching.

Towards the end of the book, the authors reflect on the ways that have been and are being used to improve schools' effectiveness. They argue, rightly in my view, that the use of public accountability, as in the school league tables and the Ofsted type inspection, presumes that there is an unused energy in the teaching profession that must be activated if improvement is to be achieved. To put it more bluntly, that the main reason why the education system underachieves is because teachers take things too easily. Actually, nearly all teachers work hard and the requirement is to increase their confidence and preparedness to change, which demand a better public image and improved and more extensive in-service training.

Which is why I would be pleased if school staffs used this book as a text. Not, however, to swallow it hook, line and sinker. There are times, especially in the chapter on mnemonics, when I felt transported to the 19th Century, with children learning the names of the capes, bays and rivers down the west side of England. It is important to be able to remember useful facts, that is, facts to use for further learning and action, but using them and acting upon them is, in my experience, usually a better way of fixing them than spending a lot of time making up associations. I would not rule mnemonics out altogether, but one of my neighbours still blushes when she remembers calling a newcomer Mrs. Rouge instead of Mrs. Reading: associations operate both ways. Nor would I be pleased with the teacher who sprung it on her class that from now on they were individually responsible for arranging their own programmes.

Professor Norman Thomas
Visiting Professor,
University of Hertfordshire

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Themes for the Future Issues of New Era in Education and Deadlines for Contributors

December 1998: Education: Liberation or Oppression?

Deadline for articles: July 1, 1998

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 1998

April 1999: Visions to Reality

Deadline for articles: November 1, 1998

Deadline for other contributions: January 7, 1999

August 1999: Cost of Higher Education: Taking Stock

Deadline for articles: March 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: May 1, 1999

December 1999: Education = Literacy and Numeracy?

Deadlines for articles: July 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 1999

April 2000: Targets for the New Millennium

Deadline for articles: November 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: January 7, 2000

Notes for contributors to the New Era in Education

Contributions are welcome on any other areas of the work of the World Education Fellowship. They should be sent to the editor, Dr. Sneha Shah, Faculty of Humanities, Languages and Education, University of Hertfordshire, Watford Campus, Aldenham, Hertfordshire, UK, WD2 8AT, tel: +44(0)1707 285677, fax: +44(0)1707 285616.

Length of Articles

These should normally be between 1000 and 4000 words.

Format of Articles

Authors should send three copies typed on single-sided A4 paper, with double line spacing. The pages should be numbered and each copy should have at the top of the first page the title, author's name, and the date sent to the editor. Once the article has been accepted authors will be required to send a 3.5 disc. Citation of sources in the text should normally be in the convention (Graves, 1990), (Spielburg in Desai 1980), (Kironyo 1981, 1984, 1989).

References and bibliographies should normally be presented as follows:

Adams, E. (1955) **Testing Individual Children**, London, UK, Wimbledon Press

Adams, E. (1975) Profiling, **New Journal**, 5(3), 55-74

Adams, E. (1981) Self-managed Learning pp 168-183 in Andrews, R (ed) **The Power to Learn**, London, UK, Special Press

Adams, E. (ed)(1988) **Profiles and Record Keeping (Third Edition)**, London, UK, Special Press

All headings and sub-headings should be in upper and lower case and should not be underlined. All headings should be bold, sub-headings in italic.

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Great Britain - WEF(GB) Newsletter Editor: Mark Jones 83 Brentwood Road, Ingrave, Essex, CMI 3 3NU	Sri Lanka - National Education Society of Sri Lanka Editor: Dr (Mrs) Chandra Gunawardena Faculty of Education, The University, Colombo 3
Holland - Vernieuwing (in Dutch) Editor: Johannes Ode c/o Van Merlenstraat 104 Den Haag, 2518 TJ	USA - Worldscope Editor: Dr Patricia Vann 11 Yellow Yellow Circle, Middletown, CT 06457 Deputy Editor: Frank A Stone Prof of International Education

NEW ERA IN EDUCATION is the termly journal of the **World Education Fellowship (WEF)**. The **Fellowship** is an international association with sections and representatives in more than twenty countries, which has played a continuing role in promoting the progress of educational ideas and practices in the twentieth century.

NATURE OF THE WEF

Founded in 1921, the World Education Fellowship is voluntary and non-partisan, and enjoys the status of a UNESCO non-governmental organisation category B. It is open to educators, members of associated professions, and to all members of the public who have a common interest in education at all levels. The Fellowship meets biennially in international conferences, publishes books and pamphlets, and, through its national sections, participates in workshops, meetings and developmental projects. The Fellowship does not advocate any dogma; each member is free to put the principles indicated below into practice in ways which are best suited to the environment in which he/she is living and working.

PRINCIPLES OF THE WEF

- (a) The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.
- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities. (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

ACTIVITIES OF THE WEF

In order that these principles become a reality, WEF endeavours to:

- (a) identify and pursue changes in policies and practices to meet the varying individual and shared educational needs of people of all ages.
- (b) promote greater social and economic justice and equality through achieving a high standard of education for all groups worldwide.
- (c) encourage a balance between an education which nourishes the personal growth of individuals and one which stresses the social responsibility of each to work towards improving the human and physical world environment.
- (d) foster educational contacts between all peoples including people from the third world in order to further international understanding and peace.
- (e) promote education as a lifelong process for all people, regardless of sex, race, beliefs, economic status or abilities.
- (f) encourage cooperative community involvement in clarifying educational goals and undertaking educational programmes.
- (g) secure for teachers the training, facilities, opportunities and status they need to be effective, professional people.

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Education: Liberation or Oppression?

Sneh Shah

In his revolutionary book, **How Europe Underdeveloped Africa** (1972) Walter Rodney makes a statement which many may agree with:

Education is crucial in any society for the preservation of the lives of its members and the maintenance of social structure. Under certain circumstances, education also promotes change. (p 238-9).

However, the complexity of any 'society' and hence the beneficiaries and sufferers of an education system became clear in a very curious context. During a recent visit to Poone, in the State of Maharashtra in India, attention was drawn to many radical changes that took place around the turn of the century. The main focus was the provision of education for two groups of people, girls and women, and the so-called untouchable class. A number of reformers cared about the oppression of these groups and felt that education played a key role in the change of the status and the welfare of these groups. Both the groups were seen as weak groups and hence the need for someone else, in a position of wealth and power, to take action.

Different institutions were set up, with different life spans. One college that still exists focuses on giving the girls and women enterprise skills so that whether they are on their own or with a family, they can earn some money and thus have some control over their lives.

A number of schools that were set up, mainly for the so-called untouchable class, did not survive. There were two main reasons for that. One was that the initial enthusiasm generated by the commitment of specific individuals was not always accompanied by the necessary financial commitment. The more powerful force, however, was the strength of the upper classes/castes. Their own position was going to be threatened, and being in a powerful position, they worked hard to ensure that such schools had to face incredible barriers. Thus what was supposed to liberate one group of people was seen, in the same society, as something that would oppress another one.

Considering such events leads us on to consider the role of the educator as we head towards the next millennium. While there have been long debates about the political and other purposes of education and the impact of that on the position of the individual and the

nature of social, political and other type of change, the function of the teacher needs to be considered from new angles.

Educators that have inspired others have existed but these days seem to be more of a rarity. This is not because people of such calibre do not exist, but because their role and how they operate on a day to day basis is changing. Pressures on all education institutions are immense. Attempts by the international communities and individual countries to improve their performance has increased bureaucracy. An assumption that electronic aids increase efficiency has also led to pressure on individuals to keep on accepting new technology.

Within all that, the educator is quite likely to lose their identity as educators who can be agents for change and inspire others in relation to innovation. In other words, the educators themselves are likely to become oppressed. This is particularly an issue as subjects and content that sustained the intellectual dialogues, philosophy of education, history of education and sociology of education, are being marginalised. Educators can spend a whole day at a very expensive seminar learning how to manage people. Half the time, and much less cost would lead to individuals reading about people like the social reformers in Maharashtra in the nineteenth century and the impact on the reader is going to be remarkable. Arguably reading about schools for the untouchables in India in the last century may have no relevance to teaching at a university in England in the year 1998. But the thought processes that started after reading on the theme just for half an hour is likely to have an impact on not just the reader's own perspectives about education, but about the role of history, the way we perceive and interpret the past and get influenced by it.

Continuing professional development and staff development are examples of the terms used to ensure practitioners do not become stale and that they are enabled to update their skills and knowledge. Time built in just to think, listen to others, share their ideas and concerns may in a very functionalist society appear to be a waste of time, but if the educators wanted to be liberated, they have got to learn to appreciate it, and demand it.

Towards a Research-Based Profession

David A. Turner

Introduction

When the World Education Fellowship (at that time the New Education Fellowship) was established in the early 1920s, it was a product of its times. In particular, it took a position on policy development which was widely accepted, namely, that if people of good will could only see a policy working well, then they would adopt it. In this spirit, one of the prime functions of the Fellowship was to support a network of teachers so that what we would now describe as "best practice" could be disseminated. The Fellowship also drew upon its environment, in the sense that it was assumed that there was a great deal of good practice around to be studied and used as a model for improved teaching. Abbotsholme and Bedales were among the more famous exemplars of the "new education", but there were many others.

One of the instruments which the Fellowship established to disseminate new methods was the journal, the *New Era in Education*. Throughout its history, the journal has held as one of its ideals the publication of accounts of good practice, by teachers, addressed to other teachers. The intention has been to disseminate good practice, by providing a shop window where teachers can be stimulated by ideas to which they are sympathetic, and which have a track record of being successfully implemented in a practical setting. Although this has not been the only aim of editors of the journal, it has always been important, and perhaps became the primary purpose of the journal through the 1950s and 1960s.

In the jargon of the 1990s, the Fellowship and its journal promoted the idea of a "research-based profession" which developed "evidence-based policy". But the Fellowship, and that word may not be insignificant, pioneered the view that learning was not a technical matter of transferring information. The emotional and spiritual development of the child was as important as, if not more important than, the acquisition of knowledge. Creating a research-based profession was not simply about establishing experimental schools, important as that was. The problem with developing a research-based profession is not restricted to developing more research. The key difficulty is to produce an environment which is truly educational in the broadest sense, which stimulates the creativity, the spiritual and emotional development of the teachers reading the research as well as those producing it, and which creates the confidence to try out new approaches. In short, creating a research-based profession involves treating teachers as autonomous learners, and applying everything we know about education to them.

In the United Kingdom, the Teacher Training Agency (TTA) has made a clear statement that it wishes to promote a "research-based profession"; teachers are

to be encouraged to research their own practice. To this end, the TTA is making available funding for teachers to conduct projects which might reasonably be described as "action-research", that is research undertaken by participants with an interventionist intention, aimed at the improvement of practice.

At first blush, this sounds like a laudable goal. Particularly for a journal such as the *New Era in Education*, this appears to be an idea with a long and progressive tradition. However, what divides the TTA from the traditions of the World Education Fellowship is a difference over what constitutes a "research-based profession". The WEF principles involve a commitment to a professional process which is itself research-based, while the TTA is looking for a model which is content centred, and provides improved ways of passing on pearls of wisdom, and which explicitly denies the importance of the research process as an end in itself. This is a distinction which goes to the heart of the educational process. On the one hand we have a traditional view of the educational process, in which those who know pass ready-formed knowledge on to passive recipients. According to this model, effective education involves the minimum of "distortion" of the transmitted knowledge as it passes from teacher to taught. On the other hand we have a progressive model of education in which the learner is active, and creatively transforms both the new knowledge which is acquired in learning, and the old knowledge which they had previously understood, in the process of learning. The role of the teacher is changed, and based upon a firm understanding of process, which is at the heart of the skills of the teacher. In the new model there is the possibility that the teacher will also learn, and will need to hone their own learning skills to promote this.

What I will argue here is that there is a great difference between the two notions of a "research-based profession" which are being offered; there is a narrow and mechanistic model concentrating on content which is being offered by the TTA, and there is a broader, more rounded interpretation which is in line with WEF principles (as set out on the back cover of this journal). Particularly through the pages of this journal, WEF can aim to renew one of its original purposes, by giving teachers who have researched their own classroom the opportunity to tell other teachers about their results, to describe what it feels like to be trying out new and successful techniques, and to encourage others to follow their example.

The challenge today is, as it was eighty years ago, to take the dry and dusty skeleton of an educational system, which concentrates upon the transmission of facts, and to build it up into a fully human activity which caters to the all-round needs of those involved. The *New Era in Education* can, and should, provide a

forum for those aspects of professional development which teachers have undertaken.

Teaching as an Evidence- and Research-Based Profession

To help secure teaching as an evidence- and research-based profession (Millett, 1998:6)

Let me illustrate my sense of what a research-based profession would be like, with a few reflections upon my own experience. If one reflects upon one's own teaching career, obtaining a qualification which enabled one to teach was a starting point, not a finishing point. Each of us entered the classroom as teachers with huge areas of ignorance. This is not a criticism of the initial training which we received; it is a recognition that over the course of a teaching career one was going to encounter a huge variety of circumstances which one had not been fully prepared for: a child who has a physical disability which one had never experienced before, a child who has religious beliefs and customs with which one is unfamiliar, a child whose cultural background makes it difficult for him or her to deal with certain aspects of the National Curriculum, and so on. It is impossible to prepare prospective teachers for every eventuality, and it would be a waste of valuable time and resources (not least the interest of trainee teachers) to make the attempt.

The qualified teacher, therefore, is not in any sense a "finished product" of the educational process. The teacher should go on to grow and develop throughout their career. And in order to do that they need the skills to learn from the systematic study of their own experiences, supported by the wisdom of others. In short, teachers need to be equipped to research their own practice. The exact significance of this can be illustrated by an example.

Some years ago, I was teaching in a secondary school. In one of my classes I taught a pair of identical twins. I found it very difficult to distinguish between them, but it was clear to me that they were not learning very well, or very quickly. I decided to find out more about the education of twins, and using the research facilities available to me as a masters student at the University of London Institute of Education, I conducted a literature survey on the topic of twins.

In the course of that research I discovered a great deal about twins, not least that "identical" twins are frequently not identical, but are mirror images, one of the other. This led me to go back and look again with fresh eyes at my pupils, and to discover that they were indeed not identical. This first step, of being able to distinguish between the twins I taught enabled me to study their behaviour more effectively, and to investigate other aspects of their education (not least that the performance of twins rises if those who teach them can distinguish clearly between them).

It may well seem to be the case that over this period I was spending an excessive amount of time upon two of my pupils (among the two or three hundred that I came into contact with every week). A case to justify this input of time could be made on the grounds that

this pair of boys had an impact on the education of the 28 children in the same classroom. But that is only a partial explanation of why the exercise was valuable.

For a brief time I focused my attention upon twins, and by implication a pair of my pupils. However, I was using the research process to develop myself as a teacher. I was able, through my research, to reflect upon more general issues, such as why we put so much effort into producing "artificial twins", by imposing school uniform, or how we produce "effective twins" by failing to distinguish between individuals, by not learning names of pupils, or listening to individual needs. A study of twins could act as a personal focus for consideration about a whole range of issues related to the need for individuals to gain respect as individuals. This process of reflection was as important, in fact more important, than any particular facts I learned about twins.

If one thinks about the career of a teacher, there is no possibility that every young teacher can be prepared for every situation that they will meet in their profession. Problems will present themselves to the teacher, and the ability to research their own practice holds out the only opportunity to improve performance dramatically. What can I do to improve the educational performance of twins? How can I enrich my teaching for a blind pupil? Or for a pupil with another form of disadvantage? How does the performance of pupils in this school compare with other schools nationally? Or internationally? What do other teachers do to make this topic more interesting? Am I sure that I am clear on this theory in my own mind? Each year even the most experienced teacher will face situations which are new to him or her, but which have been faced by many teachers around the world before.

One can therefore consider the preparation of professional teachers in a new light. Rather than try to prepare every teacher for every eventuality, teachers could be prepared with the skills to become their own researcher, to address their own professional practice through research into one or two key problems which they face each year. In this way, teachers could improve their own performance through their own actions as evidence-based and research-based professionals. This is not about learning key "facts", but about developing an approach which is integral to all one's teaching activities.

The TTA Corporate Plan

In the area of Continuing Professional Development and Research, the TTA have four strategic objectives. (Millett, 1998: 6) Together they form the context within which the TTA's goal of a research-based profession is to be interpreted.

"Strategic Objective 5:

To improve the knowledge, understanding and skills of serving teachers

Strategic Objective 6:

To improve the quality of school leadership and management

Strategic Objective 7:

To ensure that classroom assistants are effectively used and deployed by teachers and headteachers, and have access where appropriate to career ladders into teaching"

Strategic Objective 8:

To help secure teaching as an evidence- and research-based profession"

Perhaps the first thing to note is that on the model of research-based action given above, there would be hardly any difference between Strategic Objective 5 and Strategic Objective 8. If one concentrates on research as process, research is about the improvement of the knowledge, understanding and skills of serving teachers. The identification of these two separate Strategic Objectives suggests that the TTA intended something else. The other two strategic objectives in this area, with their obvious emphasis upon management, both general and of the human resource provided by classroom assistants, gives some hint, but a good deal is left to interpretation.

However, the product orientation of research is emphasised by Millett when she talks about "the need for more research to be conducted and presented in a way that allows more teachers to make practical use of the findings to raise the standards of pupil achievement". (Millett, 1998: 6) Here is a very different view of research. It is the findings of the research which are important, and the standard by which those findings are to be assessed is whether they promote standards of pupil achievement. This leads to a strange and disturbing conclusion: the TTA advocates continuing professional development in a way which totally overlooks the development of the professional. Only the professional's clients are considered in evaluating the worth of programmes. This is unmistakably different from the view of a research-based profession which I set out in the previous section, where the emphasis was upon process, and research was to be valued for its ability to stimulate professional reflection.

In case it be supposed that this is based upon an accidental statement by Millett, similar points are made elsewhere:

"The first page should set out a quick-fire summary of up to eight key points or nuggets of information which will encourage them to want to find out more. The report should be concerned with the potential implications of the research, rather than telling the story of the research project." (TTA, 1998)

"The fact that teachers researchers (sic) are focused on what their colleagues need to know also helps us find ways of making research accessible and interesting to teachers." (TTA, 1997)

This makes it clear that it is the product of research, or nuggets of information, which are the primary product. Presented in a clear and concise way, in an executive summary, these nuggets are to be made available to colleagues, who, one can only suppose, will be able to use them in their own practice, without going through the process of conducting research for

themselves. Indeed, researching "what their colleagues need to know", rather than what they need to know for themselves, is the discipline which is to keep these teacher-researchers on the straight and narrow. Taken together, these various descriptions build together to give a sense of research and education as a process of transmission of information which is totally at odds with everything we have come to know about education in the past two hundred years.

Even so, at the Corporate Plan Conference in 1998, Millett had very little to say about research, preferring to leave the development of this area to David Reynolds, who elaborated a fuller position on the role of research in improving teacher effectiveness. (Reynolds, 1998)

Teaching and Research

In his presentation to the Corporate Plan Conference, Reynolds demonstrates a deep confusion over what research is for in the classroom. Is research supposed to produce uniformity, or is it to produce productive diversity? Even in a relatively short paper, Reynolds manages to give both answers. First, he suggests that research can overcome a rigid uniformity: "In Britain we have celebrated a 'one size fits all' notion of teaching rather than celebrate and plan for diversity of teaching methods within different phases, subjects etc.". (Reynolds, 1998: 5) On the other hand, by analogy with finding cures in medicine, Reynolds (ibid.) promotes the idea that there is one best method which teachers can and should adopt in specific circumstances: "I believe teachers need, similarly [with reference to doctors], to reject the demoralising nonsense that they should daily reinvent the teaching wheel, and that their professional satisfaction is linked to their exhausting yet doomed attempt at educational and instructional DIY, the educational equivalent of the invention of a cure for TB. Instead, they should be encouraged to use known to be valid methods, whilst at the same time always enquiring as to how they can make them better".

Reynolds argues at various points in his presentation that the teacher is an applied scientist, a technologist, and in positions which are analogous to those occupied by a pilot or a doctor, but these metaphors are never substantiated, never developed. The result is a half-baked and confusing picture of what the role of research in the classroom could be.

If we look at the analogies offered, of a pilot or a doctor, the underlying message behind the TTA's view of a research-based profession is one of 'dumbing down' teaching. A pilot can be replaced by an automatic pilot, and a plane can be landed by machine. This is true of many of the functions of a pilot, although few of us would be content to board a plane without a human in the cockpit. Diseases can be diagnosed, and cures prescribed by computer systems. This is true, too, but it describes a much smaller proportion of the professional life of the doctor. Human relations and health are as much a part of a doctor's professional life as disease and cures, and doctors cannot be 'replaced' by machine.

But the proportion of a teacher's life which could be replaced by a teaching machine is almost negligible. If presenting information in the most technically efficient manner were the crux of education, teachers would long since have been replaced by those excellent teaching aids available on the market - books, films, audio tapes, video tapes or computer games. Certainly, all teachers should have a command of many useful teaching techniques, but in matching techniques to learners the skills of the teacher become ever more important.

The essence of a research-based profession of teaching is that research should be used to broaden and sharpen the autonomy of the teacher in the classroom; everything we know about the thrust of the TTA's programme is that it is aimed at reducing and blunting the autonomy of the teacher.

In contrast with this, WEF, and the New Era in Education have a long-standing view of the role of research in the classroom, which is that it should inform the decisions of teachers in their own work, and that it should increase the autonomy of teachers. Teachers should be encouraged to research their own practice, and then share their good ideas with other professionals, who, far from taking off-the-peg solutions, will wish to research their own practice to see whether stimulating ideas can work in their own circumstances.

A Way Forward

Over the past seventy-odd years, the New Era in Education has provided a forum where teachers can publish reflections upon their own work. This has been done in a spirit of promoting diversity, and of spreading best practice. To borrow a phrase from Reynolds, the journal has tried to encourage a move away from a "one size fits all" notion of teaching". WEF and its journal have never been alone in this project; teachers unions, subject associations and other educational pressure groups and organisations have had similar goals. But WEF has had a special place in that effort, and in the New Era in Education it has a unique resource.

Now that the TTA is making funds available to promote classroom-based research, we may hope that a growing number of teachers will be encouraged to conduct research into their own practice, and will feel encouraged to publish their ideas and stimulate the thinking of other teachers. One vehicle for such publication will be the research report which the TTA will require, with its "eight key points or nuggets".

This will be a requirement of funding, and who could blame teachers for doing what is necessary to secure support for their research?

But that will leave a great deal untold, perhaps the most thrilling and motivating stories of personal success in the classroom. The New Era in Education has always provided a forum for publishing such stories, and still does. The proposal which I put forward here, therefore, is a very modest one: that teachers who are researching their own practice in a formal way for the first time, and who are looking for somewhere to publish their experiences should be made aware that this is central to the concerns of the New Era in Education, and that they are cordially invited to submit reports for publication. Perhaps, in the future it will be possible to devote a section of the journal to such themes.

The TTA has started the process that may appear to be a diluting of the nature and significance of each for the teaching profession. However, it needs to be seen as a catalyst for serious educationists to very critically scrutinise the current approaches and use of research in education. Critical reflection is generally being recognised as indispensable to good classroom practice. It could be argued that there has been an unnecessarily big gap between research and good classroom practice. The challenge is to broaden the spectrum without lowering the quality or value of either.

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Please contact George John, General Secretary of WEF, for more details.

Career Pathways and Minority Ethnic Researchers: Some issues

Sneh Shah

Introduction

Research in current as well as historical terms has played a major part in creating and promoting inequalities, especially racial ones. Many scholars have made suggestions such as an increase in the number of minority ethnic researchers, so that the agenda would not be set by an already dominant set of values both in terms of the topics of study and how they are studied.

The aim of the paper is to look at some of the ways in which, despite having more minority ethnic researchers, research is still leading to a continuing circulation of stereotypes. Initially the reasons for needing more minority ethnic researchers for research into minority ethnic issues are highlighted, using three recent studies. The paper then examines the specific points raised by these three studies. The analysis then moves to the complex situation of research issues, and how reporting of research does not necessarily reflect this complexity. Finally, the implications of these issues for research today are discussed.

Research and Minority Ethnic Issues

There have historically been concerns expressed about research in the context of minority ethnic issues. Amongst these have been that of the responsibility of the researchers to the communities that they have been researching into or used to obtain data. The validity of research done by white academics who have little comprehension of minority ethnic experience has been in question. Research is often seen as another vehicle for neo-imperialism; the frameworks for the research is often heavily based in attitudes and assumptions driven by a need to justify imperialism or were subconsciously shaped by an intrinsic belief in ritual hierarchies.

Often research is conducted for the general advancement of knowledge and the specific discipline field. However, whatever the personal motives, research cannot be seen without the implications it may have. To quote Solomos' (1989) as quoted in Constantine-Simms (1996:15):

Where the academic appears in favour of doing a specific piece of research it is politically naive and potentially dangerous to see research as separate from its contextual political environment in governments and other interested bodies take a strong and have asked in academic research about so-called dominant groups in society. It would be extremely naive of Black researchers, of their political persuasion, to believe otherwise.

An appropriate recent example is given by Paul Connolly (1992:133), who believes that Foster's study

(1990) came to the conclusions which Connolly believes do not reflect reality because his research design and methodology were based on his own political orientation, and ethical and theoretical positions.

Even more critical are the points Connolly makes about Foster's perceptions of, and ability to relate to, experiences of The Black community; (1990:146):

In the last analysis it was Foster's inability to view society in terms of contradictory and conflictual social relations, characterised by positions of domination and subordination, that directed his research towards an analysis of the rules of the game and not the game itself. Ethically therefore, instead of locating his research within, and letting it be ultimately informed by, the wider struggles of the black community. Foster was theoretically constrained into focusing upon a narrowly defined analysis of policy formations and teacher perceptions.

The black students, and the wider Black community, played little part in his work and he was therefore constrained to adopting highly questionable research methods and a theoretical analysis which paid little attention to the fundamental contradictory nature of society and as a consequence, was drawn into articulating ideas of cultural inferiority and of pathologising the Black students. Ultimately what had the potential for being an enlightening study of anti-racist policy, formation and classroom practice has instead attempted to pull the debate on 'race' and education back firmly into the 1970's.

There has also been the belief that more minority ethnic researchers will redress the balance.

With increased international migration and individuals and groups having multiple identities, research is sometimes a personal exploration of the historical/current situations and factors that have impacted on that.

Focus on three studies

This paper was the result of responses to three recent studies, by Callender (1997), Bhopal (1997) and Singh-Raud (1997). The three studies were reported separately in the national press. Bhopal and Callender's books are published.

Callender's work focused on teaching styles of six black teachers. The study was reported briefly in the press. The jacket of the book states that

Education for Empowerment provides some answers. Based on an ethnographic study of

six Black teachers, the author's analysis of finely grained qualitative and quantitative data suggests that it is possible to speak in terms of Black teaching style. Although this style may be perceived as 'harsh' and 'disciplinarian' by outsiders, many children of African-Caribbean heritage find it emancipatory in intent and culturally 'connect' with it. For these children, Black teachers' behaviour represents an important support for learning. This book shows why.

Education for Empowerment is essential reading for practising teachers and those in training, for ITE course providers and all who have an interest in the education of Black children in Britain.

Bhopal's study has evolved over a number of years. The coverage in The Guardian Higher Education section was big, with photographs. The study was:

Research carried out with Asian women in east London showed education to have a significant impact on women's participation in traditional Asian practices. Women with high levels of education are less likely to enter into an arranged marriage than those who dropped out of education at an earlier age. Many of the women in the study felt education was an important part of their lives, it was used as a stepping stone in which their traditional community was taking place. Furthermore, these women were more likely to be economically active in higher occupational positions than other women. Their entrance into further and higher education enabled them to make choices about the type of employment they entered, something they felt their own mothers were unable to do. As a result, they achieved a sense of independence in their own lives and rejected an arranged marriage if they so wished and instead, supported themselves.

There are significant changes taking place for Asian women in British society. These women are not caught between two cultures; some of them are rejecting aspects of their traditions such as arranged marriages in favour of others such as cohabiting or remaining single. Education acts as a catalyst in which this process of change takes place. Asian women no longer conform to the traditional stereotype, they are instead doing what many other women in Britain do — making their own choices about their own lives.

Raud Singh's study, part of which was presented at the 1997 conference of British Education Research Association was focusing on education of British Asian girls. The abstract for the paper he presented was as follows:

South-east Asian girls are not homogeneous clusters as perceived by ethnocentric British establishments and institutions. They are discernible, for example, by religion, sect, linguistic association, caste and country of

origin. This paper explores the relationship between religious background and the attitudes of Asian girls towards education. It was found that some of the responses by the girls were contrasting and it was evident that some of the answering was influenced by religion. This paper suggests that if institutions in Britain fail to understand the dissimilar effects of religion on ethnic minority students then south-east Asian students will experience to some extent 'creedism and lack of support due to the non-religious aligned presumptions.

Issues raised by these studies

While acknowledging that there are other studies that raise similar issues it is necessary to focus on questions that these studies give rise to. They are all in different ways focusing on specific images of particular groups of minority ethnic people, and they are all conducted by minority ethnic researchers, quite close in ethnic background to their subjects. These can be described as follows:

1. Are stereotypes being created?
2. Is it the studies themselves that create the stereotypes, or is it how they are reported?
3. Research may be motivated by different reasons. Is it possible that a particular need that minority ethnic researchers have for doing research that is inadvertently having other, not so positive consequences?
4. What is the connection between such research and policy/practice in education?
5. What is the responsibility of academics and bodies validating research towards issues such as links between research and stereotyping?
6. Are there changes that could be brought in to ensure all research students have a better grounding in issues related to research and minority ethnic issues, and the consequences of the research process for the researcher, race relations, and education policy?
7. Who can nationally take on the responsibility for discussing these issues and seeking change?

What stereotypes are being created?

Researchers need to be aware of the possible impact of their work on others. A relevant example is one of Christine Callender's work on the empowerment of lack of teachers. Callender took six teachers and did a qualitative study. One of her concerns was the underachievement of Afro-Caribbean children, boys in particular, as highlighted in the Ofsted Report of 1996.

The main findings of her research were that those Afro-Caribbean teachers who have been educated abroad had a particular teaching style. This can be described as being more authoritarian than that of other teachers. Her other main conclusion was that Afro-Caribbean children were able to relate to these teachers. Others could logically conclude from this study that

the under-achievement of Afro-Caribbean children could be responded to by having more black teachers. Images, especially stereotypes, stick. While Callender was able to find six teachers which in her analysis, fitted a particular teaching style, anyone in a teacher education institution could find six Afro-Caribbean individuals who would not fit that model. However, all who became aware of this research are likely to instinctively think of Afro Caribbean teachers as being authoritarian.

Osler (1997:107) gives a very pertinent example. Taking the example of Bhupinder, she suggests that being labelled by others as an 'Asian teacher', or as a 'black teacher' acts as a stereotypical set of assumptions and is potentially very damaging. Bhupinder contrasts very sharply with the stereotype but it may be difficult or even impossible for her to function effectively in a setting where such stereotypical attitudes prevail.

The labelling of Bhupinder as an 'Asian teacher' means that her performance is judged not by a general standard but against the perceived attitudes to other Asian teachers. Osler refers to this as a serious cause of concern. Similar in some respects to Callender's study was Ghuman's (1995) on Asian teachers in British schools. While he found that some older generation Asians who were educated abroad were often judged to be more 'authoritarian', Ghuman concluded that while such perceptions were partially justified, it had to be underlined that their training had been in a different system and different environment. It was of concern that younger Asian teachers were still being categorised in a similar way by certain of their white senior colleagues. The possible implications for the career development of the younger Asian teachers was clear.

There is difficulty in reconciling this with what has long been accepted through studies and reports such as Rampton (1981) and Swann (1985) about stereotyping, their formation, and the effect on attitudes and policies.

Is it the studies themselves that create the stereotypes, or is it how they are reported.

The question of stereotyping raises another issue related to terminology and the role of research. The example will be the category Asian. We have already seen references to Osler's concern about teachers being judged according to the perceived membership of a particular group. Bhopal and Singh-Raud have focused on Asians.

One question is acceptability of research done with these groups, Sikh, Muslim and Hindu being called Asian as with Singh-Raud. The use of such an overarching term seems to discount the differences that must have led to the initial placing of the subject in the three groups. The question that follows is what is the purpose of highlighting the 'Asianness' of these subjects? He does state that his study is designed to counteract the normal stereotype of a south-east Asian girl, and that linguistic and other associates are meaningful. However, does focusing on commonness

dependent on religion as the unifying factor create another stereotype, eg. an Asian Muslim woman?

Constantine-Simms (1996:17) refers to Bourne (1980) who suggests that academics can sanction and perpetuate pathologies and stereotypes. Bourne also suggests that academics foster a scenario while the Black community inadvertently participate as social guinea pigs in the production and maintenance of their own racial oppression and inequality.

Should a term such as Asian be used? Critics would argue that as a term it has become widely used and therefore acceptable. Others would want to question the level of analysis if such a term is sanctioned, when following other criteria that may be inaccurate. Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims could be described as Asian if the link is the family/ancestral origins. However, as a geographical category, it excludes other people of Asia, who might legitimately be called Asians i.e. people of Asia such as the Chinese. Popular usage of the word Asian in Britain tends to exclude the Chinese.

Bourne (1980) quoted in Constantine-Simm (1996:17) also refer to pathologies which are created and perpetuated. Examples of pathologies are identity crises, negative self-image, inter-generational conflict, unrealistic high expectations and cultural conflict. The report of Bhopal's study, the newspaper started as follows:

At the age of 18 some Asian women are expected to settle down into an arranged marriage. But as Kalwant Bhopal reports, increased access to higher education is enabling them to break free from tradition and make their own choices about how to live their lives.

It can be argued quite successfully that the report is fair as it is talking about some Asian women only. However, the whole theme is one that has been an obsession with researchers. The most important element seems to be Asians and arranged marriages. There are clear indications about the undesirability of the first state, from which those individuals have broken 'free'.

Is it acceptable that these examples are used to make the generalisations which in fact either create new stereotypes, or confirm existing ones?

With reference to Callender's study of six Black teachers, I can easily find six ex-students who are of the same ethnic origin, who would not fit into this teaching style at all. So, what do we learn from Callender's study? Do we learn that these Black students that we have educated are not true Black teachers, or that they will not be the ones that black children want to turn to?

Is it the case that Black students training to be teachers want to be labelled as Black teachers with this particular teaching style?

Do all Black children want to relate to Black teachers, and Black teachers alone? Are we saying that the problem of Black underachievement in school children will be solved if there were more Black teachers?

Research data, especially when reported outside the purely academic world could influence professionals

and practitioners. The media is very powerful.

One key issue is the reporting of research findings. Reported in research/academic circles it would be hoped that it will happen with the full context i.e. the criteria, the specific questions, the constraints, the methodology, the size of the sample etc. In such a case it would be assumed that the value and limitations of the study would be clear. When reported in the media the key criteria for selection and the format of reporting are likely to be as what is deemed to be most interesting for readers. The selection of the reporting in the media, therefore is not necessarily linked to academic/research criteria.

Yasmin Alibhai-Brown has reminded us of the bias in the media which can be particularly harmful to race relations. Her quotation from Stuart Hall (1981:19-20) is very apt on the seriousness of the reporting.

How we 'see' ourselves and our social relations matters because it enters into and informs our actions and practices. Ideologies are therefore a site of a distinct type of social struggle. The site does not exist on its own, separate from other relations, since, ideas are not free floating in people's heads. The ideological construction of black people as a 'problem population' and the police commitment in the black communities mutually reinforce and support one another. Nevertheless ideology is a practice, it is generated, produced and reproduced in specific settings (Sites) especially in the apertures of ideological production which 'produce' social meanings and distribute them through our society like the media.

Alibhai Brown (1998:122-3) suggests there are four trends discernible in the media in the context of neo-conservation, which she says is a crisis of identity: the four trends are:

- * The use of the label 'political correctness' is leading to the disengagement of the left; and ignoring, every political and ethical challenge.
- * A re-assertion of liberal values which is being linked to greater support for cultural protectionism and pride.
- * A fierce campaign against values of Islam.
- * A re-assertion of Englishness, or Britishness, linked to a melancholy look back to the country's insularity.

To some extent, therefore, the reporting of the research may not do justice to the intentions of the researchers or the nature and findings of their studies.

Needs of minority ethnic researchers for doing research

As individuals, it is the right of researchers including minority ethnic researchers, to be able to develop their academic/professional careers, using research as relevant. In particular, there has been concern that it is the lack of a significant number of minority ethnic researchers that in the past has supported biased researchers against minority ethnic people.

Research is sometimes best done if you are close to the subjects. A logic doing justice in research to minority ethnic issues would be to support this.

This would also mean that the same groups would have ownership of the research. Callender's example highlights the needs that minority ethnic researchers have to explore their own backgrounds. It is possible that in the area of migration and multiple loyalties, research can meet a very personal need, to use research to understand the historical and current factors that are shaping their individual and collective location in the society they are living in. An agenda for reviving the social history of black communities is an integral part of their identity and an important part in strengthening their position as a group at least as equal to any other one in society.

A common argument used to be that stereotypes were created when white researchers decided on the agenda. According to Constantine-Simms (1996:17), white researchers ardently defend White on Black research and Black on Black research of the nature of Duncan (1988) who confirm and reinforce their academic expectations of Black children. Therefore, who should take responsibility for this? It is possible that Black researchers are caught in a trap, and it is the responsibility of the academics to find a remedy.

The Connection between such research and policy and practice in education

A vast range of problems may arise especially if research studies are reported briefly and selectively in the press.

One of my concerns in the professional field has been the development of a shortened BEd to enable people educated abroad to have a shorter route to getting qualified teacher than the usual four year BEd route, if their original qualifications are deemed not to be at a graduate level according to British standards.

In a shire county and in institutions here there is a much smaller than national average number of people from minority ethnic backgrounds. The gap between people's perceptions of and knowledge about minority ethnic people and the reality is noticeable. In the context of teaching practice placements this may become clear. More important however, is the prospect of these newly qualified teachers getting jobs in a shire county. Despite the increased publicity given to stereotyping its causes and consequences, the statistics from employers for minority ethnic population show the higher qualifications have not necessarily led to equal access.

Faced with this situation which is an ongoing process of increasing awareness and making for equal access for students and teachers, publicity given to Callender's study would easily increase the subconscious hesitation of many head teachers and governors about employing black teachers. A clear indication that black/Afro-Caribbean teachers could have a more authoritarian style of teaching may not appeal to educators who despite the pressures of the National Curriculum and League Tables, believe that

to be a Victorian model is not appropriate to Britain in the 1990's.

From my perspective as both a researcher and a teacher educator, and someone who is lecturing on equality issues; concerns are:

- difficulties of preventing people from using these studies and making decisions;
- effect on recruitment, for instance as part of a scheme specifically designed to tackle issues of minority ethnic, and overseas trained students, the effect of this on tutors who interview, on course content, which is going to be based on these assumptions, and on the individuals themselves, and on their jobs, when interviewed by panels of governors and headteachers.

In the academic field while requiring researchers to be aware of existing subject knowledge and research methodologies, research which challenges existing knowledge will, even if it is not approved of, be available to act as a catalyst for wider thinking.

Research and policy have an interesting relationship. It can be argued that research is convenient but is used as it fits in with the agenda of the policy makers. Research is often commissioned for a particular purpose (e.g. Swann Report 1985 and education in all-white areas), and used for information (e.g. Gilborn and Cippis 1996 for Ofsted). It is difficult to ascertain the specific effect any individual piece of research, however used.

The responsibility of academics and bodies validating research

Research plays a very important part in the living of academics, currently in two specific ways in particular. More and more success in research is linked with getting academic posts, certainly with career development. Criteria for promotion will have research involvement as a key area, specially with the increasing importance of Research Assessment Exercises in the standing and funding of higher education institutions.

This is likely to have consequences for all researchers. The normal approach to research is the identification of a problem and then the programme for research implementation.

Who decides what area of research will be acceptable and what framework will be deemed to deserve the PhD or MPhil? The selection of areas of research is a complex issue. In many ways it can be a process of re-confirming a particular bias in content or approach. Accepting of research studies could be dependent on availability of supervisors with the relevant expertise. Thus it becomes difficult for students to start a new trend at a particular University. Expertise of academic staff would determine the content of the undergraduate and post graduate taught courses.

Teacher Training Agency (TTA) Funding of Classroom Based Research

None of the possible complications for minority ethnic issues in relation to current TTA policy is likely to support the further professional development of

teachers in these areas, nor contribute to enhancing the role of education for good race relations in Britain.

When the Swann Report was published in 1985, there was a patchy approval to the implementation of a policy highlighting the relevance of education to a positive culturally diverse society, both from the LEAs and the teacher education departments. The Swann Report had a major impact on the development of more pro-active policies in many areas. However, the criteria that could lead to the severe marginalisation of these issues both in the teaching of schools and the education of new and existing teachers are a cause for concern.

Thus the legacy that the present teaching force with regard to an awareness of areas as highlighted in the Swann Report and concerns about research as stated in publications such as Constantine Simms (1996) and Blackstone et al (1998) is likely to be very slim and in a large number of cases non-existent.

There can be a number of consequences. It could be that areas related to social justice may not be on the agenda of teachers doing action research, as they may be unaware of the issues or believe they are not significant as they are not a part of the TTA's current continuing Professional Development priorities.

If there are specific areas in school causing concern, such as discipline problems or lack of achievement, then the pathological approach could dominate. One example of this would be classroom research focusing on the reading/literacy standards of Afro-Caribbean children. While this type of classroom research could take place within the context of Gilborn and Cippis (1996), it could perpetuate a deficit model. The dilemma, as ever, is that of reconciling researching 'problems' within a framework of equality.

The research could focus on the specific areas which this group of children could be lacking in progress. If the broader context of their performance is not acknowledged, then issues such as the effect of teacher expectations on pupil performance could be ignored from the point of policy this is a position of extreme concern. Within the current and projected TTA Curriculum for teacher education there is no significant reference to an integral context of teacher students' awareness of issues related to ethnic relations and their ability to develop and act upon such awareness.

The recently produced conference report by the TTA and CRG (1998) as its title states very clearly, examines the training of teachers in a multi-ethnic society. However, there is no match between this report which takes up points made in the national conference earlier this year dated April 1998, and the final guidelines for teacher education published by TTA in April 1998. While it could be legitimately argued that the two developments were on different time scales, the lack of receptivity by TTA officials to the sentiments of the conferences that took place from November 1997 is a cause for concern.

The need for a different package for research degrees

The solution could well be a different type of higher

degree package. Many of the Mphils and PhDs are done by way of one piece of research, within the normal approach of a sample analysed in the basis of the existing literature, validity etc.

A new package has to give space for the researchers to explore the ways in which research condones and creates social injustice, and still provides a researcher a pathway to excellence in research, with access to the normal career opportunities.

It does not appear, however, as if these are necessarily changing some of the sources on inequalities. There are many more minority ethnic researchers but research is still often controlled by existing structures of disciplines and criteria for successful completion.

Research in current as well as historical terms has played a major part in creating and promoting inequalities, especially racial ones. Many scholars have made suggestions such as an increase in the number of minority ethnic researchers, so that the agenda would not be set by an already dominant set of values both in terms of the topics of study and how they are studied.

The Challenges

There is a wide range of issues in relation to social justice. It is crucial that debates about minority ethnic issues and research move forward from the 1980's. It is also vital that they are not marginalised but that they are used to aim for just policies and practices. There needs to be a better acceptance of issues of social justice within the research and academic world generally. Rather than being little segments in the training for researchers, they need to underpin their complete training.

Research is becoming used more widely, and beginning to be given creditability even when it is small scale and is not underpinned by the normal criteria for acceptable research. In this way more and more people, like school governors and parents who are also making decisions in education are likely to be influenced by , and be supportive of, research which does not uphold social justice.

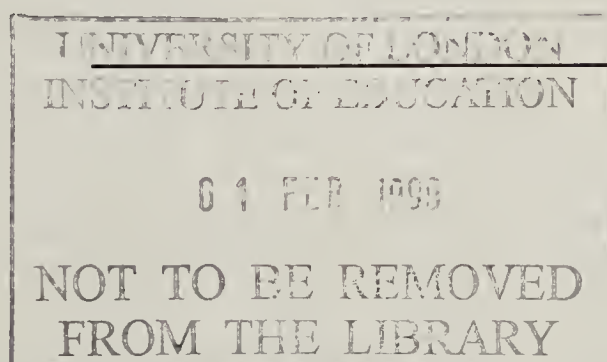
The continuing domination of the traditional framework within which minority ethnic research issues are conducted needs to be challenged. Minority ethnic researchers need to be given space to conduct research in such a way that they contribute to their personal development, add to our knowledge and understanding about different communities, and any other areas they chose to research.

What is needed very critically is a forum where such issues can be openly discussed, without the fear of being used by individuals and organisations for their own political purposes. A forum is needed to analyse adequately the problems that are being created when the onus for acceptable research is placed on minority ethnic researchers alone. There needs to be a strategy to discuss how media coverage can be challenged, and research at different levels can become more responsible to social developments.

British Education Research Association's Social Justice Group (BERA SIG) is in a unique and ideal position to be able to both generate a fuller debate within BERA and influence policies of other organisations.

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Challenges of the Internationalisation of Higher Education

Joke Snippe

Introduction

The process of internationalisation is progressing at a steady pace with several consequences for higher education. More and more students seek their education abroad. Host countries must be prepared to welcome students from all over the world, from various native languages and cultural backgrounds. The students coming from non-European cultures in particular experience cultural differences when they enter the European educational system. This has to do with the way lecturers communicate with students, with educational methods being used, with the way students are being assessed and several other educational circumstances connected with culture. If there are no additional facilities for international students then it would be unfair to them. The study behaviour of international students for instance, can be quite different from the study behaviour of European students (Jochems et al., 1996). Institutions for higher education will have to provide for equal opportunities for all students which means they have to provide for proper and adequate facilities for international students to enhance their chances of academic success.

For small countries such as the Netherlands, the consequences of the internationalisation process will be the use of a foreign language as the medium of instruction. English will have to be the language in higher education, at least for the international part. So nowadays, many institutions for higher education offer English programmes for international students. However, it is not enough to simply provide international students with English-medium instruction. They are likely to make a false start and in time they may even drop the course. International students need time to adjust to their new situation, since their educational experiences may be quite different from the educational culture in the host country. Another task for the institutions, which is strongly related to the position of international students, is to provide for good quality education. There is a strong need to prepare the lecturers for teaching in a non-native language. The situation described in this paper is a very specific one since both lecturers and students take part in education in a language which is not their mother tongue. If in the long run Dutch students will also enter international education, in the English language, then the question is how this might affect their academic results.

Delft University of Technology

Delft University of Technology is a university that trains students to become engineers. The curriculum is a five-year programme. The university is nationally and internationally renowned and over the years many international students have come to Delft to study. In the past they had to master the Dutch language in order to be able to follow the regular curriculum. This

language problem has proven to be quite a handicap for international students. It is fairly obvious that the Dutch language is only spoken by very few people all over the world.

Delft University of Technology has most recently started an international Master of Science curriculum to meet the growing demand of international students. The M.Sc.-programme consists of six courses, Aerospace engineering, chemical and Biochemical engineering, Electrical Engineering, Materials Science and Technology, Technical Informatics and Technical Mathematics. This two-year curriculum is open to selected candidates with a Bachelor's degree in the study of their choice. The language of instruction is English. The selection procedure for the candidates includes having a Bachelor's degree in the chosen field of study, an assessment of academic ability (measured with the Graduate Record Examination-test) and assessment of Grade Point Average in undergraduate study; furthermore English proficiency as measured with a TOEFL-score (Test of English as a foreign Language) of at least 550. On the basis of these criteria there is an interview, to assess their ability to study independently, solve problems, take the initiative and adapt to a new (cultural) environment. Prior to the interview candidates had stated in writing their motivation for undertaking the chosen course. Admission is conditional: after six months in the M.Sc.-programme a final decision taken, on an assessment of their academic performance up to that moment. In 1997 students from Indonesia entered the programme; the recruitment policy of the university started from existing networks. Delft has historical ties with Indonesia and many students have studied in Delft.

Introduction programme for international students

International students enrolling in an English-medium programme at a Western-European university have several difficulties to overcome. The instructional language, i.e. English, is not their mother tongue and, given the background of the student groups, the academic culture is likely to be different. Academic culture can be described as the systems of beliefs, expectations and cultural practices about how to perform academically (Cortazzi and Jin, 1997). The authors add that for skilled practitioners - such as academic staff - many aspects seem obvious but are rarely made explicit. Student support is therefore necessary to discuss aspects of the academic culture, to explain elements of this culture and make them explicit. This support is not only necessary during their study period but also at the beginning of their study in the Netherlands. Therefore, an introduction programme has been developed for the M.Sc.-students to help them get acquainted with the Dutch academic culture. This does not necessarily mean that the

programme is a totally one-sided matter. Moreover, the purpose of the programme is to get acquainted with specific educational experiences and to discuss differences in educational culture. Lecturers will know which experiences the international students bring to class and international students will get to know what the experiences of their fellow students are and they will learn about the specific nature of Dutch higher education.

The contents of the introduction programme have been based upon the four-dimensional model of cultural differences by Hofstede (1991) and his translation of this model to teaching and learning (Hofstede, 1986). Hofstede described this model based on empirical data, derived from values questions administered to employees in 40 countries. In the model there are four dimensions to describe characteristics of cultures and differences between cultures. These dimensions are:

1. *Individualism versus collectivism*

The dimension individualism versus collectivism has to do with the role of the individual in a society versus the role of the group. Individualist cultures assume that the individual is the primary source of interest, extended to immediate family; collectivist cultures assume that every person is born of an in-group of which he will always be a member. An individualist society is loosely integrated where as a collectivist society is tightly integrated.

2. *Power distance*

The way in which cultures deal with the question of inequality between people is represented in the power distance. A society that accepts inequality of people as being part of life and consider it to be rather normal is a society in which the tolerance towards inequality in power is large. Cultures can differ widely in the extent to which they accept

inequality in power and consider that to be normal. Countries in which the power distance is low have little tolerance towards inequality in power whereas countries where there is a large power distance people are more willing to accept inequality in power.

3. *Uncertainty avoidance*

The uncertainty avoidance-dimension has to do with the tolerance towards the unpredictable. It defines the extent to which people can handle unstructured, unclear and unpredictable situations. People in cultures with a strong uncertainty avoidance feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations. They cannot handle the uncertainty resulting from unstructured situations and they will try to avoid uncertainty. As a consequence, they have a need for predictability as in the use of written or unwritten rules.

4. *Masculinity versus femininity*

The dimension of masculinity versus femininity has to do with the difference between men and women and their respective roles in society. In masculine cultures there is a large difference between the roles of men and women whereas feminine cultures define more overlapping roles for men and women. Masculine cultures expect men to be assertive, ambitious, and competitive, to strive for material success and to respect whatever is big, strong, and fast. They expect women to serve and to care for the non-material quality of life, for children and for the weak. In feminine cultures men may have other goals in life apart from being ambitious and in search of material success. They are allowed to respect the small and the weak.

As an illustration, based on the data from Hofstede, Indonesia and the Netherlands will score on these four dimensions as follows:

Indonesia	The Netherlands
collectivist society	individualist society
large power distance	small power distance
masculine society	feminine orientation
moderate uncertainty avoidance	moderate to weak uncertainty avoidance

Application of this model to the situation of teaching and learning in higher education will give

insight in the academic differences between the Indonesian and the Dutch culture of higher education.

Fig. 1: Model of Hofstede applied to teaching and learning in higher education (Hofstede, 1986).

collectivist society: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>students expect to learn how to do</i> • <i>individual students will only speak up in class when called upon personally by the teacher</i> • <i>neither the teacher nor any student should ever be made to lose face</i> • <i>education is a way of gaining prestige in one's social environment and of joining a higher status group</i> 	individualist society: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>students expect to learn how to learn</i> • <i>individual students will speak up in class in response to a general invitation by the teacher</i> • <i>'face-consciousness' is weak</i> • <i>education is a way of improving one's economic worth and self-respect based on ability and competence.</i>
large power distance societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>teacher-centred education (premium on order)</i> • <i>students expect teacher to outline paths to follow</i> • <i>students speak up in class only when invited by the teacher</i> • <i>teacher is never contradicted nor publicly criticized</i> 	small power distance societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>student-centred education (premium on initiative)</i> • <i>teacher expects students to find their own paths</i> • <i>students may speak up spontaneously in class</i> • <i>students are allowed to contradict or criticize teachers</i>
strong uncertainty avoidance societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>students feel comfortable in structured learning situations: precise objectives, detailed assignments, strict timetables</i> • <i>teachers are expected to have all the answers</i> • <i>students are rewarded for accuracy in problem solving</i> • <i>teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as personal disloyalty</i> 	weak uncertainty avoidance societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>students feel comfortable in unstructured learning situations: vague objectives broad assignments, no timetables</i> • <i>teachers are allowed to say "I don't know"</i> • <i>students are rewarded for innovative approaches to problem solving</i> • <i>teachers interpret intellectual disagreement as a stimulating exercise</i>
masculine societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>teachers openly praise good students</i> • <i>teachers use best students as the norm</i> • <i>a student's failure in school is a severe blow to his/her self-image</i> • <i>students compete with each other in class</i> 	feminine societies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>teachers avoid openly praising students</i> • <i>teachers use average students as the norm</i> • <i>a student's failure in school is a relatively minor accident</i> • <i>students practice mutual solidarity</i>

Based on the model of Hofstede, Indonesian students will experience large differences in academic culture when they come to the Netherlands for study. Furthermore, the educational system in Delft University of Technology also has certain characteristics which may be rather new to overseas students. Since the university acknowledges the fact that (future) engineers are supposed to work independently on certain assignments and need input from various disciplines to be able to solve problems in a effective way they let the students work in project groups during the study. This kind of group work may be rather new to the students. At least, they may need some preparation before they are able to work in a project group effectively.

Therefore, the expected problematic areas and the cultural differences as have been mentioned above as well and the objectives of both the M.Sc.-programme and the education at DUT in general illustrate the need for an orientation programme to support students. DUT

provides a two-month pre-sessional orientation course that prepares students for the M.SC.-curriculum and introduces them to living in the Netherlands and in Delft. The course is a mixture of practising English language, inter-cultural aspects, study skills and experimental learning. Furthermore, students receive counselling during their actual studies: a mentor monitors students' progress by means of individual interviews (twice in the first six months) and by collecting data on academic performance.

Components of the orientation programme

Although the university requires students to provide evidence of proficiency in English, support in English language and study skills should be a vital part of the service of the university to international students (Cownie & Addison, 1996).

Therefore, one of the objectives of the two-month pre-sessional course is to practise English language skills related to academic activities. In close relation

to this, another objective is to practise or brush up study skills. Other objectives have to do with perceived cultural differences: become aware of and reflect on cultural differences, in society as a whole as well as in the classroom, and in the relationship between lecturers and students. At the same time, the introduction course has the objectives of acquiring social skills related to

academic performance, acquiring problem solving skills, acquiring knowledge of the Dutch language at a very practical level and learning to collect information electronically in the library (see also Macrae, 1997).

Figure 2 gives a concise description of the various components of the orientation programme.

Fig. 2: Components of orientation programme

<i>week</i>	<i>objective</i>	<i>learning activities</i>
<i>week 0</i>	<i>social introduction to Delft and the Netherlands</i>	<i>students get to know the city, accompanied by student-mentors of their own culture</i>
<i>week 1-2</i>	<i>practising English proficiency</i>	<i>reading strategies:</i> <i>skimming, extracting main points from texts, summarizing</i> <i>speaking skills:</i> <i>small group discussions, short oral presentations, interviewing</i> <i>writing skills:</i> <i>essays, writing assignments based on reading and speaking assignments</i> <i>listening skills:</i> <i>practising throughout the whole course</i>
	<i>orientation on Dutch culture</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>reflection on Indonesian and Dutch culture</i> <i>focusing on differences between the cultures</i> <i>focusing more specifically on differences in teaching and learning in the two cultures</i>
	<i>discuss and practise study skills</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>taking notes from (video-taped) lectures</i> <i>writing short essays</i> <i>working on assignments independently</i> <i>engage in group discussions</i> <i>reflect on personal use of time-management principles</i> <i>reflect on personal use of study skills</i>
<i>week 3</i>	<i>preparation for project education</i>	<i>learning to work in a team:</i> <i>team roles and team work</i> <i>interpersonal communication skills</i>
	<i>library course</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>search for literature</i> <i>use of Internet as a source</i>
<i>week 4</i>	<i>Dutch language</i>	<i>practising the Dutch language at the level for practical use</i>
<i>week 5</i>	<i>preparation for project education</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>learning to chair a meeting</i> <i>learning to negotiate</i> <i>learning to handle a conflict</i>
<i>week 6</i>	<i>oral presentation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>introduction to oral presentation (in English)</i> <i>practise in oral presentation</i>
<i>week 7-8</i>	<i>project work</i>	<i>problem solving as a team:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>working in multi-disciplinary groups (5 members) on a problem</i> <i>finding several possible solutions to the problem</i>
	<i>written communication</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <i>introduction to writing a report</i> <i>practising writing a report</i>

Evaluation of the introduction programme

In July and August 1997 the first group of M.Sc.-candidates arrived in Delft. This group consisted of ten Indonesian students aged between 23 and 35. They were the first group to join the introduction programme. Evaluation of the programme has taken place to see whether the objectives of the programme have been met and whether other components should be added to the programme in the future. Students as well as lecturers were interviewed to give their opinion on the programme.

The results on the individual semi-structured evaluation interviews with the *students* show that on the whole they are very content with the programme. They were very pleased with the social introduction programme, the support they were given by the student mentors and they also appreciated the special attention they were receiving in this way. With respect to the contents of the programme the students all agreed that the weeks devoted to project education were very valuable. It is something they are not used to in the Indonesian educational system; they were surprised with the person attention they got from the lecturers. The sessions on interpersonal skills were rather strange to them. They liked it and they felt they learned a lot, but nevertheless it didn't feel like education to them. They were not used to looking critically at themselves and reflect upon their own behaviour and way of thinking. For some of them it meant they surprised themselves: one female person in the group said: "to my surprise, I actually heard myself talking in the group; I don't normally do that; that is very new to me." During the sessions on social skills students also learned about the difficulties of working in a group and making decisions in a group. One person commented on the decision making process. He found out that an older person in his group referred to the 'seniority principle' and wanted his opinion to be taken more seriously because of his age.

The students were also very satisfied with the fact that Dutch lessons were included in the introduction programme. In fact, they even applied for extra lessons during evening hours since they wanted to be able to communicate with Dutch students in Dutch. Although this may have been an extra burden for the students having to communicate in three languages, English, Dutch and the Indonesian language, none of them reported any problems connected with this particular language situation. However, they did report on the danger of speaking little English since they could speak the Indonesian language amongst themselves. More critical comments were given on the first two weeks of the programme: the students felt that no choice had been made between exchange of inter-cultural information and English language training. They all felt they could do with some more language training and they asked for more individual feedback on their way of speaking and writing in English. Some students thought that the materials for the assignments were too easy; others understood the purpose of the assignments and did not really object to the level of

the materials. Most students did not care very much for the inter-cultural lessons. In their opinion they would find out most of that information by themselves and they would have their own experiences while living in the Netherlands.

All students remarked on the atmosphere in the classroom during the sessions on oral presentation in English. They said that they didn't feel comfortable. They had to repeat certain tasks for the second or third time which had made them uncomfortable and nervous. One student comments: "when I had to do the same presentation again I felt more nervous than the first time; my performance was not as good as the first time; then I had to be the same presentation again, for the third time; now my performance was really bad!" It is as likely as not that this has something to do with losing face: students feel they lose face when they have to repeat an assignment; they feel they have been punished by the lecturer.

The *lecturers* were asked about their opinion on the programme. The lecturer for the first two weeks of English proficiency and inter-cultural education remarked that there appeared to be serious gaps in the vocabulary of the students. In their grammar there were such gaps that parts of their written assignments were hard to understand. Furthermore, many students experienced problems with reading strategies such as detecting the main points and with summarizing information.

Concluding remarks on the introduction programme

The evaluation shows that language training is necessary. Students ask for individual feedback and individual assignments. They also need more practice in speaking English. Despite the fact that the selection procedure includes a TOEFL-score of 550, students' English proficiency shows serious deficiencies. This will put the co-ordinator of the M.Sc.-programme in a serious dilemma: either raising the required TOEFL-standard in the admission procedure and thus excluding large groups of - mainly Asian - students or providing M.SC.-students with English language training.

Furthermore, the evaluation shows that the lecturers in the introduction programme should pay more attention to inter-cultural differences while teaching. The example of the lecturer in the oral presentation class draws attention to the fact that in an inter-cultural classroom different educational methods should be used or at least, lecturers should consider carefully the methods and exercises they are going to use.

Teaching in a foreign language

It is one thing for an institution of higher education to prepare the incoming overseas students to the education they are about to receive, preparing the lecturers is quite another thing. Lecturers display a different behaviour when they teach in English compared to teaching in Dutch, the mother-tongue. The teaching behaviour of sixteen university lecturers

has been observed, both in Dutch-medium sessions and in English-medium sessions. The video-tapes of these sessions were analysed. The lecturers were experienced lecturers in general, with actual experience in conducting English-medium courses, and feeling quite confident when teaching in English (Vinke, 1995). The results show that the lecture sessions in Dutch and in English were highly comparable: they were structured in the same way. There were differences however: in the English-medium sessions the lecturers observed move less when teaching, they show less variation in speed of delivery and intonation, they formulate less easily and they use vague words and expressions to a greater extent. In short: a change of instructional language reduces the redundancy in the lecturers' speech, expressiveness, clarity and accuracy of expression (Vinke, 1995). Students may not recognise the structure of the lecture sufficiently. Furthermore, they may not pick up on explanations due to unclear sentence-formulation or concepts which are unknown or translated in unfamiliar expressions. The results also showed that lecturers slowed down in speech rate, measured as words per minute. This however, may be beneficial for students since they have problems with understanding speech (Flowerdew and Miller, 1996).

For the M.Sc.-course to be successful it is necessary that Dutch lecturers receive training to prepare them for their teaching job in English to prevent a loss of quality of education. Also, if international students are to be given equal opportunities as Dutch students

in pursuing a higher education degree then they should receive high quality teaching.

Learning in a foreign language

One of the future plans for the M.Sc.-course will be to allow Dutch students to enter the programme. This will create a situation in which Dutch students will attend lectures in a non-native language, given by lecturers who are also non-native speakers. An important question in this respect is to what extent Dutch students' learning will be affected by the change in instructional language.

Recently an experiment has been performed at DUT in which Dutch first-year engineering students attended a Dutch-medium lecture or an English-medium lecture (Klaassen & Snippe, 1997). The lecture was given by an experienced lecturer with a good command of the English language, as has been confirmed by the British Council. The same lecturer gave both the English and the Dutch lecture and the lectures have been video-taped. The topic of the lecture was a rather unfamiliar subject to the students: an introduction to the philosophy of science. Immediately after the students had watched the lecture on video-tape, they took a test to assess the knowledge of the lecture content. This test consisted of 30 questions with a yes/no structure. Students who attended the Dutch lecture took the test in Dutch and students who attended the English lecture either took the test in English or in Dutch. The results are shown in table 1:

Table 1: Mean test scores

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation
Experimental group 1 (n = 35): English lecture and English test	19.4	3.7
Experimental group 2 (n = 36): English lecture and Dutch test	18.9	2.6
Control group (n = 38): Dutch lecture and Dutch test	21.2	3.5
Total sample (n = 109)	19.8	3.4

From the test results it appears that students who attended the Dutch lecture outperformed students who attended the English lecture. Apparently, a switch from the mother tongue to English as the language of instruction moderately reduces Dutch students' learning from a lecture. There is no statistical significant difference between students who attended the English lecture and took the English test versus the students who took the Dutch test after attending the English lecture. Test language does not seem a factor of major importance in these test results. All the students who participated in the experiment

followed English as a mandatory pre-university school subject. These results give rise to some concern on the English proficiency of Dutch students and the possibility of maintaining a high quality standard in English-medium instruction. It is clear at this moment that additional measures will have to be taken if the board of the University seriously wants to admit Dutch students to the M.Sc.-programme. This will also be the case for other institutions for higher education in the Netherlands since there is no reason to consider DUT an exceptional case in this respect.

Concluding remarks

Getting prepared for international higher education is a meaningful task both at the level of the lecturers and at the level of the students. International students need time to prepare themselves in the host country for their study. This time is best used for academic preparation, language preparation as well as social skills and study skills that are considered to be crucial in pursuing a Master's degree successfully. During this bridging period it is also beneficial for students to exchange experiences and information on educational background with lecturers and with fellow-students. It has to be taken into consideration that there is no superiority of culture in this respect.

The introduction period has the purpose of exchanging information on cultural background. This exchange can be beneficial and a good learning experience to both the international students and the representatives of the host country. The process of internationalisation will only flourish under the condition of thorough knowledge and understanding of cultural backgrounds. In consequence of the process of internationalisation, institutions for higher education in non-English speaking countries, such as the Netherlands, will have to provide for good training for the lecturers, as has been mentioned in the previous section of this paper. This training should focus on English-medium instruction but also on inter-cultural aspects of teaching in a foreign language. All these measures will have to lead to good quality international education, both for international students and for students from the host country.

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UNICEF and Children in the Bosnian Conflict

Bruno Laden

UNICEF: Forty years of experience in facing children's problems.

The birth of Save the Children Fund in 1923 signalled the beginning of an international movement committed to the rights of children in war, regardless of the ethnic background or political side to which their home community belonged. The Fund was founded by Eglantine Burke, a British nurse, after she visited the war devastated areas of the Balkans in the immediate aftermath of the First World War. Her organisation, initially concerned with maternal and child health in war and post war situations, was the forerunner for a number of other agencies.

Soon after the founding of Save the Children, the League of Nations ensured the Geneva Convention included key declarations about the rights of children,

Unfortunately, this piece of international legislation was wholly ignored during the Second World War, which saw an increase of over 30% in child and civilian deaths by comparison with the First World War.

As a horrified world woke up to the grim reality of the holocaust and the destruction in Europe after the Second World War, a new organisation was built out of the legacy of the League of Nations. Founded in 1945, the United Nations sought to efface the divisions the war had brought. Committed to peace and development, the UN was seen as an organisation that could move the nations of the world together towards a more progressive future.

A key UN agency born out of this was UNICEF, the United Nations Children's Fund. Initially established as an emergency organisation bringing relief to children who were suffering from poverty in the aftermath of the Second World War, UNICEF was providing technical and material assistance to communities in need. UNICEF would later shift the emphasis of the majority of its work to long term development, such as vaccination campaigns and water supply provision in countries which were ravaged by long term poverty. It still maintained an emergency response unit which could react to conflict and famine, if needed.

By combining idealism with enterprise, UNICEF still continues to respond to the silent emergencies of poor countries and the loud emergencies of war zones with innovative forms of aid provision. But UNICEF's role is not to help children directly. UNICEF seeks to empower the teachers, parents and other professionals or community leaders, to take care of children in their own community.

UNICEF has an Executive Board based in New York which plans the field budget of the organisation. The Executive Board includes diplomatic representatives from member states. In co-operation with UNICEF staff they develop a strategy for key areas of UNICEF intervention. The major areas of UNICEF programmes are:

- **Water and Sanitation** - ensuring that communities are able to provide a safe water supply to their children. Two key causes of death in "third world" countries and conflict areas are waterborne diseases and acute diarrhoeal diseases caused by a lack of water.
- **Expanded Programme of Immunisation (EPI)** - providing health workers at the grass roots level with the vaccines, storage supplies and training to carry out immunisation campaigns. EPI is specifically aimed at protecting children against the six major childhood killer diseases: tetanus, measles, diphtheria, typhoid, polio and pertussis.
- **Primary Health Care** - assisting governments and local authorities to use limited resources more effectively, in particular the support of maternal/child health services and the promotion of outreach nursing facilities.
- **Education** - as laid down in the convention on the Rights of the Child, the provision of the basic material assistance and training guidance required by communities seeking to provide basic primary education to children.
- **Psycho-social Support for War Traumatized Children** - the provision of psycho-social training personnel and therapeutic supplies to support local education, health and social welfare units which are attempting to assist children who are emotionally affected by the trauma of war.
- **Nutrition** - establishing supplementary and therapeutic feeding programmes in areas where

the supply of food has been cut off by war or natural disaster and the promotion of breast feeding and other safe feeding practices, which can best guarantee safe nutritional status of children.

Through these programmes UNICEF seeks to reach its basic goals, the reduction of infant mortality caused by poverty related diseases and the protection of children who are affected by war or natural disaster. Every twenty-three seconds one child dies of a disease that could have been prevented. It is possible to see how unjust the world can be and how crucial the work of UNICEF is.

Perhaps the ongoing deaths are symbolic of a world in which the political will does not exist to defend the basic rights of children. Although the entire United Nations General Assembly is less expensive to run than the New York Fire Department, government donations and aid budgets are being cut year by year. Despite this, UNICEF continues in its uphill struggle to tackle the effects of poverty and war on behalf of the world's children.

Bosnia: Historical background

Bosnia emerged as a state for the first time in the early Middle Ages, but lost its independence shortly after the expansion of the Ottoman Empire in the thirteenth century and for some five hundred years it remained its furthest western colony. Ottoman rule was succeeded by Austro-Hungarian administration in the early nineteenth century and Bosnia became a part of the Hapsburg Empire. The next significant milestone in Bosnia's history was the Communist regime after the Second World War, when Bosnia emerged as one of six republics within a Yugoslavian federation. These eight hundred years of historical struggle and suppression of national identities have contributed to the horrors in Bosnia's most recent history.

Seeds of Conflict in Bosnia

In June 1991 war started in the former Yugoslavia, bringing an end to peace in Europe after 45 years. It is impossible to chart independently the course of history that led to the break up of this Federal Republic. Different arguments on the origins of the war can not only be found on the Serb, Croat and Muslim sides, but also in the foreign policy departments of state capitals as far apart as Washington DC, Paris, London and Moscow.

Prior to the outbreak of war, the Federal Socialist Republic of Yugoslavia had been functioning as a united state for 46 years. The founding father of modern Yugoslavia had been Josip Broz Tito, a former partisan leader who shaped a multi-ethnic style of government until his death in 1980. Yugoslavs used to joke that their country had seven frontiers, six ethnic groups, five republics, four languages, three religions, two alphabets, one federal army and one boss - Tito.

This joke disguised the serious potential that had always existed for ethnic conflict in this diverse country. Ethnic groups in the region included Albanian,

Serbian, Croatian, Slovenian, Macedonian and Muslim. The Serbs and Macedonians had their own Cyrillic alphabet which was similar to that of the Greeks and the Russians. Croatia and Slovenia were economically most developed of all and had the urge to join the western world. Albanians and Bosnian Muslims had Islam as their distinct religion in the region.

All these nationalities were bound into one federal system consisting of six republics: Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, Monte Negro, Macedonia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and two autonomic regions of Kosovo and Vojvodina. Every republic and autonomic region had its own national majority and minorities except central Yugoslav republic of Bosnia and Herzegovina having three ethnic groups (Muslim, Serbian and Croatian) equally represented in its parliament.

Western historians were throughout these forty-six years drawing attention of the world to the fact that former Yugoslavia was containing three tinderboxes in which mutual suspicion between different nationalities was bubbling. These are:

- The Krajina Region - an area in which Serb communities had settled in previous centuries. The Krajina ran inside Croatia, bordering with Bosnia. Croats and Serbs harboured mutual suspicion about each other's role in the Second World War.
- Bosnia Herzegovina - the most multi-ethnic republic in Yugoslavia. Serbs, Croats and Muslims each harboured suspicions about their respective communities' roles during the Second World War. Some Serbs also believed that Muslims had been foot servants of the previous Ottoman Empire.
- Kosovo/Macedonia - the region in the southern part of the Federal Republic where Albanian Muslims and Orthodox Christians have fought over power for centuries.

With the fall of communism in 1990 these areas became inflamed with nationalistic hatred, and soon after nationalistic rule was established in the first free elections in 1991, the tension escalated into an arms conflict in the Krajina region and in Bosnia Herzegovina.

A Brief Summary of the Bosnian Conflict

Slovenia and Croatia, two of the most westernised Yugoslav republics, proclaimed their independence in May 1991. The Federal Yugoslav Army immediately acted in Slovenia, but after fifteen days of fighting a truce was signed and the army pulled out of this republic.

A month later, harboured suspicion between Croats and Serbs reached its peak and escalated into a real war which lasted six months and as a final result of this most of the territories in Croatia which were bordering with Bosnia were occupied by Serb forces by December 1991. A UN sponsored cease-fire in

Croatia brought temporary peace for this region, but the new wave of national atrocities emerged three months later, caused by the Bosnian referendum (March 1992) in which 62% of the population voted for Bosnian independence. Shortly after this Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia and Slovenia were recognised as independent states by the United Nations.

The war in Bosnia started with sniper shots in one of Sarajevo's main streets when demonstrations for peace on 6 April 1992 were turned into a bloodshed. Ever since then, Bosnia's war was brought home to the eyes of the world through satellite links and press photographers. Pictures of the Bosnian war were shocking. News about war raging just four hours by plane from London was terrifying.

With tanks, missiles and guns the country was systematically broken up in a pattern of rural ethnic cleansing and urban siege. In Sarajevo, the surrounding warring factions used public utilities as weapons of war. Within a year Sarajevo and Mostar, probably the two most beautiful Bosnian cities, had become skeletons of their former selves.

Children in these cities used to play together in lush green parks with little concern about their friends' religious or ethnic backgrounds. Where children once played together, all that remains now are the stumps of trees cut down for firewood in the fuel starved cities.

Cutting off the water supply and heating in a city which had winter temperatures of minus twenty killed many people. Mainly elderly and frail citizens died of disease or simply shock that their country was being torn apart by war. Many children were casualties, up to 10,000 being killed by shrapnel. In total the war took the lives of 274,000 people. Refugee camps were set up to house displaced populations. At times between 200,000 and 350,000 citizens were scrambling from their homes in terror of advancing armies.

In late 1995, a political settlement was reached which ended the war. The Dayton Agreement laid down terms in which the different sides in Bosnia could unite under a democratic and peacemaking process.

In September 1996 an election saw the establishment of a joint presidency comprising representatives of the three major ethnic groupings in Bosnia.

Effects of the War on Bosnian Children and Professionals working with them

Constant fighting, army manoeuvres and mortar shelling which lasted for three-and-a-half years, left their mark on Bosnia. But beneath this there were deeper scars of traumatic experience caused by ethnic cleansing, loss of close relatives, fear for the future and inability to lead a normal social life.

Cities and towns had had unreliable and inadequate water supplies, food distribution was entirely dependent on the political will of military commanders, people lived without heating in winter or refrigeration in summer, schools and work places became defunct and hospitals had to function without electricity or sufficient medical supplies.

Untold suffering had been inflicted on innocent men, women and children who had been powerless to stop their cities coming under siege through sustained bombardment by heavy artillery.

The daily threat of rape, torture, internment, murder, the alarming increase in the spread of tuberculosis and hepatitis 'A' and the effects of malnutrition and dehydration turned what was a relaxed and sunny country into a place of desperation and fear.

Like in any war the most affected groups of population were not soldiers but elderly people, mothers and children. By 1995 some 2.4 million people had been officially registered as displaced people or refugees, representing 11 per cent of former Yugoslavia population. About 1.5 million of these people were women and children.

The effect of the war and of the political, social and economic situation on children and women was devastating. They had been particularly targeted for 'ethnic cleansing' - the forced expulsion of people of different ethnic origin by political and military authorities of towns and villages. More than half the population of Bosnia and Herzegovina has been displaced since the beginning of the war. The aftermath of war and some continuing hostilities had rendered the social services infrastructure - such as hospitals and schools - unable to cope with the needs of children and women.

Psychological impact of the War on Children

In co-operation with the Institute of Pedagogy in Sarajevo, UNICEF carried out a screening of 1,500 children. Results documented an extreme exposure to traumatic events: 37 percent of the children had experienced their parents or siblings being injured or killed in the war. All the children had been exposed to shooting and shelling at close range; 59 per cent had had their homes shelled; 79 per cent had seen someone being injured; 46 per cent had seen someone being killed. But children's trauma reactions were not only linked to their direct war experiences; among children who had feared death from cold or hunger, these were the strongest factors explaining their psychological suffering. The UNICEF survey showed that the majority of these children believed they would die in the war. All were suffering from varying degrees of war trauma.

Children in the schools of other parts of Bosnia were revealing through their drawings their traumatic war experiences. Instead of flowers and bright colours these drawings were full of terrible war scenes, tanks, shelling and all kinds of war machinery. The most vividly horrible example was a child from Maglaj (Central Bosnia) who painted her paper in black, leaving only one tiny white spot in the middle representing her hope for the bright future.

These are the hopes and thoughts of one thirteen year old:

I hope we will come together one day. Maybe in five to ten years when there will come a

*new generation of kids and people. We are destroyed generation now.*¹

The statement, *We are destroyed generation now*, is highly symbolic in itself. Lives of hundred thousands of Bosnian children were turned from cheerful childhood into a nightmare. With their fathers on the front-line and their mothers trying to provide basics for their survival, afraid of shelling with no schooling, the children were drastically affected by the trauma of the active conflict that sounded all around them. The children lived on a diet of bread, rice and pasta. Some of them did not eat fresh fruit or vegetables for over a year. They looked pale and many of them suffered from anaemia.

Parents could not ask children, especially teenagers, to remain confined in the shelter day and night, they needed to go out and be with their friends. But unfortunately that is when they usually got hit by shrapnel and shot at by snipers.

Parents, Health and Education Professionals: Facing New Problems

Health

The appalling plight of the Bosnian people continued to worsen as aid deliveries and hospitals were seen as legitimate targets by military leaders who used the lifeline of public health services as a weapon of war. In the midst of the war health workers, doctors and teachers were only able to provide a service responding to the basic needs of survival itself. Amputations and major operations were regularly performed without anaesthetic, in dimly lit rooms and as shells fell all around the hospital. One of the Sarajevo paediatrician surgeons, after the war had reached its peak said:²

'When there was no electricity we operated by the light of a petrol lamp, almost in total darkness. It was almost impossible to proceed and we had difficulty finding the instruments. Sometimes we had no choice and we had to operate on more than five children every day because they were wounded by grenades and shrapnel. It was terrible'.

In July 1995 the enclaves of Srebrenica and Zepa fell to the Bosnian Serb Army and around 50,000 people, most of them women, children and elderly, were taken from their male relatives and had to flee across the front lines. Local authorities and health services organised provisional services with the help of UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees), UNICEF and nurses who volunteered to help. One of them, Sejla, a volunteer at the baby-washing centre at Tuzla air base, the destination of 25,000 people from Srebrenica, gave this statement to UNICEF's information officer:

*Once a woman brought her daughter to be washed and just left her in the container, she said she could not care for her any more. One of my colleagues re-united her with her child, using the support of a doctor... everyone here is traumatised.*³

The number of refugees increased so much at the end of 1995 that it was virtually impossible for health services to cover the need of the entire population. The main task that UNICEF had was to prevent the further deterioration of the health service by provision of the essential health material and offering technical assistance such as equipment and training of the paediatricians. That way UNICEF assisted health services in the reception of the refugees but big importance was also given to the long term plans for the development of these services after the crisis.

Education

Education has suffered as large percentages of national budgets were diverted into the war effort. The production of school supplies virtually ceased and there was a lack of raw materials to produce even the most basic school equipment. There was no comprehensive education management information system, reliable data or monitoring of student achievement. A drastic drop in public funds for education, the dreadful state of school buildings and classrooms, the lack of equipment and teaching materials and outdated teaching methods combined to undermine the children's right to schooling. Displaced and refugee children were badly affected, having to adjust to new schools in new surroundings at a time of great emotional stress.

The following poem was written by Edina, aged 12:

In My Dreams

*In my dreams I walk among the ruins
of the old part of town
looking for a bit of stale bread.*

*My mother and I inhale the fumes of gunpowder
I imagine it to be the smell of pieces, cakes and
kebab.*

*A shot rings out from a nearby hill. We hurry.
Though it's only nine o'clock, we might be
hurrying
toward a grenade marked 'ours'.*

*An explosion rings out in the street of dignity.
Many people are wounded -
sisters, brothers, mothers, fathers.
I reach out to touch a trembling injured hand.
I touch death itself.*

*Terrified, I realise this is not a dream
Just another day in Sarajevo.*⁴

This and similar poems were written during the siege of Sarajevo and other Bosnian cities while the artillery systematically crushed the squares, buildings and bridges. Some of them were written in a form of a letter to an unknown teacher, reflecting children's wish to go to school and to have a normal life:

*My dear teacher;
(...) I have just come out of a shelter, because a
shell fell near my building. When I am home I*

*practise writing, revise maths and read (...) I can
hardly wait for this war to end so I can go
back to my dear school and see you and my
friends....*⁵

But fear for the future was ever present and the most common motive for writing. Very often literature was the only consolation and children compared themselves with autobiographical literary characters who had had similar experiences:

*We are only twelve years old. We can't influence
politics and the war, but we want to live! And we
want to stop this madness. Like Anne Frank fifty
years ago, we wait for peace. She did not live to
see it. Will we?*⁶

From the very beginning of the war teachers had started to lay on classes for children regardless of the war. They saw this as being important for the psychological health of the children. Maintaining basic educational activity included the setting up of classrooms in cellars and basements which would be safe from shelling and sniper fire. Teachers collaborated with local broadcasters to create educational radio programmes which could be broadcast when the situation was very dangerous and children could only attend cellar classes. UNICEF supported these activities by providing the basic educational material and funding for the radio programmes. UNICEF also supported the makeshift teacher training colleges which gave the set of intensive training courses for undergraduates to make up for the shortfall in teachers caused by an exodus of refugees. All of the local teachers working in Bosnia were doing so as unpaid volunteers during the war.

Rune Stuvland UNICEF psycho-social adviser for the former Yugoslavia pointed out:

*There is enormous task ahead (...) We estimate
that in the war zones a third of the children
display strong symptoms of trauma -
aggressiveness, insomnia, bed-wetting, lack of
concentration, stuttering. A minority of them, like
those with suicidal behaviour, are in need of
therapeutical treatment...*

Bosnian teachers and parents were aware of the condition of children and all the implications for the future. Here are just some of the every day worries of the parents and teachers.

A father of two-and-a-half year old daughter says:

*Sometimes it is the little things that become big
problems. My daughter is now two-and-a-half
years old. She wets her bed every night. It is a
problem for my wife because she has to wash the
sheets and pyjamas every day, sometimes when
there is no water in the building and no heat to
dry them with. And I cannot be there to help
because I must work every night to survive.*

One of the teachers in Sarajevo expressed his feelings and wishes for the future this way

(...) [children's] whole world has changed, they have learnt different values, not all of them positive. The school can be an anchor for them, if only we can find the strength and the means to help them.

Little things becoming big problems was exactly what was making lives of parents, teachers and health professionals difficult. Although they were giving their best throughout the war they needed external material assistance or advice because they were facing rapid development of a brutal war for which they were unprepared.

UNICEF in Bosnia

UNICEF became involved in former Yugoslavia as soon as the war broke out in Croatia, and when the war broke out in Bosnia UNICEF extended its mission to this republic. For the first time after the Second World War UNICEF had to give assistance in one European country. At first UNICEF was not concerned about humanitarian supplies in the region. With European standards of health, nutritional status and education in former Yugoslavia, UNICEF saw its main role as facilitating child evacuation from active conflict area and supporting the advocacy of children's rights.

European standards of health and education made UNICEF's role much easier at first, but as the war in Bosnia became more severe each month, the quality of these services declined. The enthusiasm of local professionals working in health and education could not stop this decline simply because they lacked the basic materials necessary to do their jobs well. What was once considered to be high standard in the middle of the war proved to be a double edge; expectations of the population were still high but suddenly it appeared that only basic assistance could be offered

Because of the break down of the education and health systems that had been functioning perfectly well for forty-six years, UNICEF found itself in a challenging situation. The local population expected that UNICEF and all the other UN agencies would bring education, health and social services to their previous level but UNICEF could provide only basic material assistance and well-planned technical assistance in terms of educating, advising and helping professionals to do their job as well as they could. UNICEF's task was not to create a dependency on humanitarian aid but to enable people and society as a whole to help themselves.

A partner UN agency, the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, joined with the UN peace keeping troops and opened Sarajevo airport for the airlift of basic humanitarian provisions. Looking into this UN operation, UNICEF was able to access the besieged city, establish an office and guarantee the delivery of its humanitarian aid. An early success for UNICEF was the city-wide distribution of

supplementary feeding supplies and nutritional monitoring equipment for local nurses. By promotion of breast feeding UNICEF prevented outbreaks of diarrhoea and hepatitis among the children which are fatal diseases for infants all over the world. In addition UNICEF also shipped in water engineering equipment and spare parts for the Sarajevo water supply system that was damaged by the war activities. With this project, UNICEF in co-operation with local government water engineers, provided a substantial water supply to all of the citizens of Sarajevo, and ensured that the water was safe to drink.

Against the background of this success, UNICEF established sub-offices in major towns on all sides of the Bosnian conflict. These included Tuzla, Zenica, Pale and Mostar. Throughout Bosnia UNICEF rapidly established education programmes to reach all children in the region. By establishing its field offices, UNICEF covered all the children in Bosnia. This was an enormous task for a rather limited number of staff. Each field office consisted of the Head of the office and two or three members of local staff. It had to cover at least fifty thousand children with material relief and technical assistance monthly. The only way this could be done was by spending seven days a week in the field visiting schools, hospitals and local authority offices. After assessing the need the aid would be sent in usually on the following week or, in case of an emergency, on the following day. The partnership between local authorities and UNICEF was crucial. UNICEF sought to pursue development in the midst of crisis. The aim was to enhance the ability of local people to respond effectively to the poverty created by the war. At the same time the aim was long term child protection in war situation.

UNICEF's goals were to ensure that every child had access to a good standard of basic education, to promote tolerance and children's rights through education, to maintain schooling, even in the most difficult situations as a vital step in creating a 'normal' atmosphere for children affected by the upheaval around them. This was why the 'visits to the field' (as professionals working for UNICEF used to call them), were so crucially important. They were to assess the needs of children in different front-line towns and to monitor children's rights in the area.

At the end of 1994, UNICEF and the University of Pittsburgh provided the basis for the government's education planning. The review identified key areas for reform, including teacher training, curriculum development, education management and non-formal education. In 1995 UNICEF supported teacher training in the skills of interactive learning to encourage more child participation in the classes. This was to make it easier for the children to express their feelings and to open the door to discussion about subjects such as tolerance, co-operation and the resolution of conflict.

An immunisation programme was also started in Bosnia and UNICEF provided not only vaccines against the six major deadly diseases, but also the cold storage equipment for vaccines. This equipment was

given to the local health authorities. UNICEF's responsibility was to provide vaccines while local authorities were in charge of the vaccination campaigns which were occasionally supervised by UNICEF's members of staff.

UNICEF sought to empower local educationalists in two more technical ways. Firstly it developed a programme of psycho-social support which included the training of teachers in identifying and helping children who were traumatised by the war. Another crucial area was the organisation of land mine awareness classes in schools. This programme enabled teachers and other child professionals to instruct children on how to play and behave safely in the war affected areas and in particular how to avoid the land mines.

Conclusion

UNICEF has been present throughout the war, providing these and other services in support of local professionals working with children. The work continues after the cease-fire as UNICEF continues helping in the rebuilding of children's services and pushes for fair representation of children's rights in the emerging new state of Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Despite the peace, agencies such as UNICEF are as busy as ever in Bosnia. They are helping local professionals to re-establish basic public services and re-fashioning them to deal with both the combined effects of reduced resources and the ever increasing numbers of war devastated civilians in need of assistance.

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Bruno Laden has returned to Bosnia after graduating in the United Kingdom.

What should be the role of the teacher of children?

Ron Dultz

While adults have specific reasons for attending school, and do so voluntarily; children attend school at the request of their elders, and often under pressure to do so. While adults may at any time quit a school, or a particular class or learning programme within a school they attend, children usually may not. Clearly, children are placed in a school, and expected to participate in the programmes of a school, without their consent. Their wishes are not consulted, nor is a proper investigation made of their learning or development needs, before beginning to teach them. They are herded through programmes at the behest of educators, and ate the convenience of educators. Little, if any, attempt is made to determine the effects of this blatant manipulation.

Adults have long assumed it is their moral duty to manipulate and mould children insofar as their education is concerned because they worry that if they do not establish a direction for children by steering them and nudging them, cajoling them and pressuring them - thus controlling their lives as students, children

will not develop properly. Adults, on the whole, have transferred responsibility for this objective onto professional educators, who oversee their children's education in the aforesaid authoritarian manner.

The fact that children are vulnerable, pliable and usually unquestioning of the authority of their elders does not entitle professional educators to impose learning upon them. Professional educators may assume they have the right to impose learning upon children to ensure that they become properly educated, and parents may believe educators should have this right; but, in reality, no one has the right to demand learning of children. It is a gross violation of their civil rights.

Making children learn is as inappropriate as making your friend go for a walk, or making your friend climb a tree, or making your friend cut your front lawn. All people, of all ages, respond extremely poorly to being forced to do things. It is not human nature to be forced, manipulated or controlled. It is contrary to every decent concept of democracy and of freedom. The moment

you force someone to do something, you assume the role of dictator. The role of dictator may be required in emergencies and to ensure children's safety, but it should not be used as a method of teaching children.

Since most children are not asking for formal education, but are simply obliging their elders by going to school, it is extremely important for parents to make sure educators are not imposing hosts while their children are in their care. If educators impose upon children in unfair ways, thereby generating hostility and resentment in children, it would not be surprising if children held their parents to be partly responsible because they are attending school to please them. This hostility and resentment toward their parents may be of an unconscious variety, but it is real nonetheless.

The most important idea to keep in mind when educating children is the fact that *all children are immersed in sensitive, complex and critical patterns of self-development*. Their formal education cannot occur properly if it is inharmonious with their various patterns of self-development. Consequently, the primary role of the teacher of children must be that of fitting what he or she has to offer into the self-development of children. The only way this can be accomplished is for the education of children to cease being an educator-centred process, and to begin being a student-centred process.

But today, most public and private schools for the education of children are educator-centred. The programmes, devices, concoctions, and whims of educators are central and all-important. Little effort is made to determine the degree to which children need, want or can properly participate in what educators force upon them. In today's scheme of educating children, the educator is a dictator and children are his or her pawns. Gains that are made in acquiring information under this scheme are often losses with respect to the personal identity and overall development of the individual student.

To reverse this process, and begin to establish a solid foundation for the education of children, reasonable minds must prevail. The old ways of doing things must be discarded. Only those who have the courage to begin anew, with new concepts and new methods should step forward to reform and rebuild our institutions for educating children.

I believe the new instructor of children must first determine if the children, or can use, his or her services. Secondly, the instructor must nurture in the students a willingness or desire to be taught. In other words, the new teacher of children must first justify his or her teaching. And that is because the teacher's students likely have not elected to learn from him or her. They are simply obliging their parents and the state by being in school.

A period of initial adjustment to this unnatural situation must precede the instruction of children. This period of initial adjustment will address the civil rights of the students and the professional rights of the teacher.

The civil rights of children are centred in their right

to refuse being manipulated, even for so noble a purpose as education. We all know that an employer has a right to manipulate his employees within certain parameters in order to get the job done that he is paying them to do. But our society has erred in assuming that educators have a mandate, or a right, to demand learning of children in their charge.

A thoughtful analysis of this issue will reveal that demanding learning of children is inappropriate in a majority of cases. It humiliates children, frightens them, intimidates them, disorients them, and often establishes in them resentment and hostility toward learning.

Demanding learning of children is also an unfair assignment for teachers. Teachers placed in the position of having to demand learning from children are themselves given an ignoble task. It can be humiliating, unrewarding and demoralizing.

In conclusion, the entire foundation theory upon which the teaching of children has been established must be thoroughly re-examined. Much of it is destructive of the aims of a free and healthy society. Much of it is clearly undemocratic.

If demanding learning of children violates their civil rights and is unfair to teachers, what should be the precise role of the teacher of children?

I suggest that the role of the teacher of children should be limited to that of a facilitator who is not permitted to demand learning of his or her students. The teacher can suggest learning, encourage learning, and make it possible for learning to occur. The teacher is then a gatherer of educational resources and materials, a provider of an educational environment, and a personal source of inspiration, support and encouragement for his or her students.

If a teacher of children is not permitted to demand learning of students, the students need not participate in the teacher's programmes, offerings or suggestions. This sends an important signal to the teacher. It tells the teacher that the students must be won over by genuine teaching skills and by genuine human qualities. If the teacher is to develop a proper teacher-student relationship, he or she must learn how to properly address the learning and developmental needs of the students, and must have personal qualities which students find appealing. The students will determine if the teacher is a successful instructor by their voluntary responses to his or her teaching efforts.

A school which wholeheartedly advocates, and practices, voluntary learning for children in all instances, and at all times, sends an important signal to those who design and mandate learning curricula. It would appear at the outset that their specialised services are not needed. But perhaps this is not entirely the case. Certainly, if all schools for children were places of voluntary learning, there would no longer be any mandated learning curricula; but perhaps there could still exist specialists who design learning curricula. Their work as curriculum designers would then require different research than is commonly used for such a purpose, and much more personal

involvement with the lives and needs of children. The brand of curriculum designers would likely have to do a good deal of on-site field work to see how well their *suggested* curricula is being used, and to see if it is being used at all. Their success as curriculum designers would be predicated upon the frequency with which their *suggested* programmes, projects and materials are voluntarily assessed, and upon their appeal to students.

Schools, teachers, curriculum designers and educational administrators may wish to straddle the fence *between* methods of instruction which favour mandatory learning for children and those which favour voluntary learning for children. In other words, they may advocate and practice a mixture of the two educational methods simultaneously. With regards to instructing children, I suggest that this is like trying to mix oil with water.

Children need and deserve a learning atmosphere, or environment, devoid of the tyranny of curriculum enforcement. Educators need to show children what they know to be true: that something as invigorating, inspiring and useful as learning need not be required or enforced. By teaching children a love of learning using genuine teaching skills and genuine human qualities, and by gently fostering - within a resource-rich educational environment - dynamic impulse to learn which resides in embryonic form in every child, children can be stimulated and encouraged to attempt voluntary learning of all types and varieties. They will then automatically regard learning as their lifelong helpmate and benefactor, and willingly immerse themselves in it.

When educators teach children that the love of learning is an insufficient motivation for learning by pressuring them and cajoling them to learn what they (the educators) have predetermined is best for them to learn, educators destroy in children the inclination to develop both a love of learning and a love of knowledge at the very beginning of their lives, which is when they most need to acquire them. On the other hand, if the concept of voluntary learning for children is properly researched and implemented, it will restore a love of learning and a love of knowledge to the lives of all

children, and stimulate and invigorate the learning process in unforeseen and glorious ways.

Compulsory education for children has been tried for such a long time, and has so often failed the teachers and the children, or produced mixed or uncertain results, that it is now time to try voluntary learning for children in its most undiluted form. Although the idea of voluntary learning for children in a completely undiluted form might seem extreme, it is actually a very basic and logical approach to educating children. In the beginning, *pilot programmes* should be tried, but only in an undiluted form. No admixture of compulsory, required or mandated exercise or programmes should accompany them, infiltrate them or be interwoven into them. This is the only way in which this method of teaching children can be properly instituted, and properly evaluated by teachers, students, curriculum designers and educational administrators. To ensure the integrity of this method, entire schools - both public and private - should be selected for its adoption.

These ideas are not without precedent. A small number of schools are operating today with a long and successful record of voluntary learning for children. Three of the most successful are: Sudbury Valley School ¹, Framingham, MA; Windsor Public School, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada; Summerhill School, Suffolk, England. In addition, there is a vigorous contingent of homeschoolers called Unschoolers who believe that children should be educated voluntarily. Their stories of success in this endeavour, and their struggles to articulate its principles and practices, are well-documented in *Home Education Magazine* and *Growing Without Schooling*, which are the two most popular home education magazines in the U.S.

¹ An excellent article on Sudbury Valley School can be found in Teacher Magazine, January 1994, pp 20-25. It can be downloaded at www.teachermagazine.org

Note: This essay is excerpted from a 168 page book entitled *Educating the entire Person* by Ron Dultz © 1998.

Earth Science and Environmental Education Programs Designed for Students and Teachers

Hongsheng Cao

As part of its mission, the Department of Geology at the Florida State University (FSU) has made a strong commitment to its earth science educational programs for community schools. Earth science is a vitally important resource for environment education because environmental education requires an understanding of earth science (Busch, 1993; Jones, 1998). The earth sciences are crucial to environmental and ecological issues ranging from water resources assessments and

conservation to waste disposal (Hamblin and Howard, 1999). Through earth science and environmental education, the future generations will be equipped to restore and protect the environment (Givens, 1997).

Besides all regular and standard geology research equipment, our newest facilities are the isotope geology laboratory, located at the National High Magnetic Field Laboratory. It is equipped with a spacious ultra-clean geochemistry laboratory, a Finnegan MAT 262 solid-

source mass spectrometer used for the measurement of radioactive isotope ratios to trace groundwater and its pollutants and an Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP- MS) used to measure the concentrations of trace toxic metals and other elements.

The Antarctic Research Facility, adjunct of the Department of Geology at FSU, houses more than 20,000 meters of Antarctic and Arctic marine sediment cores and a variety of drill cores and other samples pertaining to polar geology recovered primarily by the oceanographic research vessels.

The department computer laboratory is equipped with 5 Power Macintosh and 5 PC computers, a scanner, a laser printer, a large digitizer, and a plotter.

The department owns a fleet of field vehicles that can be used in connection with field studies and field trips.

All those amazing facilities, plus our professional geologists, make the comprehensive earth education resources for school students and teachers possible.

It has established partnerships with community schools to communicate to school students the excitement and importance of earth science in our daily lives. The department offers programs with five central foci: (1) Open House, (2) Student Education, (3) Teacher Education, (4) Educational Research, and (5) Field Trips.

The faculty and graduate students can assist school students and teachers through those programs in finding out information about earth sciences and how they can get involved or by answering their questions about the earth science and environmental issues.

Open House

To incorporate community schools in earth science education and to enhance public awareness of the geology-related environmental problems, the geology department at the Florida State University carries out Open House activities to community schools in the end of Summer, Fall, and Spring Semesters, respectively. The open house is traditionally held in early January, late April, and late August every year. During the three-times-a-year events, the department opens its doors to the community schools for a fun-filled day of earth science education.

The Open House offers school students and teachers an opportunity to understand and explore the earth sciences. They can learn a little about the cutting-edge ongoing research at the department's labs, meet the department's faculty and graduate students, and gain an appreciation for the significance of the earth sciences to the region and the State of Florida.

Open House activities feature exciting exhibits and demonstrations, hands-on activities, a guided tour of the facilities, and introductory videos, specifically designed to explain earth science. Students and teachers will be entertained by scientific experiments that test groundwater and surface water for lead and other toxic metals contents. Gems and fossils are exhibited and on sale except the abundant mineral, rock and fossil samples displayed in the hallway cabinets. Youth Earth Science Contest will be held in partnership with

community schools. It really provides a valuable educational experience for students.

The informative videos cover many aspects of geology and related environmental issues, such as geological time, fossils and dinosaurs, minerals and rocks, volcanoes and earthquakes, groundwater and water resources, glaciers and ice ages, the earth's structure, seafloor spreading and continental drift; energy resources (coal, oil, and gas), environmental issues (groundwater contamination, waste disposal, and sewage treatment plants), and geological hazards (volcanoes, earthquakes, tsunamis, landslides, hurricane coastal impacts, erosion, and flooding, sinkhole damage, unstable soils, and radon gas).

Semester Open House attracts a huge crowd of students and teachers to the department's facilities. Our guests gained a genuine appreciation for the facilities of the department and the outstanding and enthusiastic faculty and staff. These efforts are all designed to explain earth science and its importance to our quality of life and to regional environmental protection. It is a great day for earth science awareness that reaches thousands of students.

Student Education

For thousands of years humans have been fascinated by earth and have struggled to understand and harness the secrets of earth. As we have learned more about it, we have made advances in earth sciences that have changed our lives. For example, oil, gas, coal, uranium, earthquakes, volcanoes, and environmental issues all resulted from geology-related research. Unfortunately, most people, including school students, lack even a basic understanding of the earth science.

Students may see and experience earth science research activities first-hand through educational tours of the department. Local high school students are encouraged to spend one day each month at the department working with a scientist-mentor on a project.

Specially trained geology graduate students go out to schools and conduct large demonstration and lecture presentations for students to assist schools in educating students about earth science and geology-related environmental problems. Students are challenged to "look, think, ask, and solve" as they begin to explore the earth science.

Young scholar program is available to senior high school students who will pursue degrees in science or engineering. They should have strong academic backgrounds in science and math. Scholarships are for one month during the summer. Young scholars will be matched with a senior researcher at the department and will participate in the research efforts on a full-time basis for a month period. Young scholars are encouraged to present the results of their research at regional or national forums. Every effort will be made to pair young scholars with ongoing research projects that are of interest to them.

We work with schools to develop a program that meets their needs.

Teacher Education

Data and research on earth sciences such as groundwater systems, geologic frameworks, oil, gas and mineral resources, and geologic hazards are essential toward resource protection and environmental concerns. The department is the only one within the community that provides the research and data to support the need for geology-related science education.

A unique earth science curriculum package has been developed by geologists and school teachers for community middle and high schools, respectively. The need for earth science curriculum materials was identified by the school teachers. The school teachers, joined with students and researchers and directed by geologists, can develop standards-based interdisciplinary curriculum packages to study earth science and related concepts.

The creators provided a three-day training session at the department including university educators, classroom teachers, science coordinators, science supervisors. It is a fantastic program which encourages student-centered learning. The program involves students in the learning process where they are developing and using problem-solving skills. The program also allows the teacher to be a learner as well as a facilitator. This promotes earth science instruction in the schools.

The developed earth science teaching and learning resource packages are for community school teachers as their curriculum materials. Its design is based on National and State Standards for science and mathematics education to create a useful tool to facilitate the implementation of an interdisciplinary, standards-based classroom.

The department offers Earth Science Workshops for school teachers in the Summer, Fall, and Spring semester of every year to integrate earth science in the elementary, middle, high school classrooms. A full-day workshop combines activities and contents with an opportunity to develop materials for classroom use. Demonstrations and lectures by geologists from the department are given to school teachers.

Teachers from elementary schools will learn and model strategies and activities for integrating earth science in the elementary classroom using reading, writing, and field trips. Technology-related and hands-on activities will be the focus of the workshop. The full-day workshop that provides participants from elementary schools with more fun activities to integrate earth science in the elementary classrooms and to support their standards-based classrooms and address earth science benchmarks. Hands-on, challenging activities accompanied with strategies for classroom implementation will be the focus. Teachers will leave with a clear idea of how to incorporate earth science into other areas of instruction.

A two-day workshop is offered in response to requests by the teachers from middle and high schools who have already begun to implement curriculum in their classrooms and in response to teachers who would like to acquire the curriculum package. Participants

will be instructed in content related to geology and hydrology by educators and geologists from the department in the first day while teachers will explore ways to implement these materials into their classrooms and integrate the activities with other disciplines in the second day. Teachers will receive the interdisciplinary curriculum package. The focus of the workshop will be earth science-related environmental science.

Educational Research

The geology department has an earth science resource library. The library is equipped with 2 Power Macintosh and 2 PC computers, scanner, laser printer, video digitizing and other audiovisual equipment, sample software, videotapes, journals, and textbooks. This resource room is available to school teachers for use in the development and exploration of curriculum resources.

Teachers can preview existing materials, multimedia products, develop new materials, and learn about utilizing multimedia and computers in the teaching and learning of earth science in earth science resource library.

During open hours, they can come to the resource room to develop a new interactive multimedia program, publish student materials, create movies and video clips, and preview a variety of curriculum products, or they can use the time to explore the use of multimedia technology. Additionally, we can schedule classes for small groups of teachers to learn about the development or integration of multimedia into their classroom.

Field Trip

A one-day field trip (open-air classroom) is conducted to inspire students' interests in the earth science and concerns for water environmental problems. Basic concepts will become concrete and clear to students through direct observation and hands-on experience (Orion, 1989).

The Floridan Aquifer is one of the richest aquifers in North America. The groundwater and surface water processes have left several lakes and dozens of sinkholes and springs in local area. The karstic features and its susceptibility make the area an ideal place for the field trip of environmental hydrology education, because the high watertable and high porous aquifer can easily be polluted by stormwater runoff, landfill sites, sewage-treatment plants, leaky underground storage tanks, and septic systems.

Lake Jackson, Lake Lafayette, Leon Sinkholes, and Wakulla Springs are selected among others for the field trip because of their environmental issues and their importance hydrologically to students. Sediments and polluted stormwater runoff from the urban and suburban development degraded the quality of Lake Jackson's water (Sterling and Johnson, 1993). The pollution sources of Lake Lafayette include a landfill site nearby, a sewage-treatment plant on the southern shore, and toxic creosote-soaked railroad ties near the northern shore (Baker and Malone, 1994). Clay

sediments from the landfill site have filled in Lake Lafayette and its wetlands. Leon Sinks (Hendry and Sproul, 1966) and Wakulla Springs (Rupert and Spencer, 1988) are two fascinating places to go over karstic features, such as sinkholes, caves, springs, solution valleys, and disappearing streams (Cao, 1998).

A field trip can enrich classroom teaching and learning and inspire students' concerns and interests for earth sciences. It is a learning event not just a "prize" for the students.

Summary

Our amazing facilities and professional geologists make the comprehensive earth science education resources available to school students and teachers.

Five key earth science education programs are developed: (1) Open House, (2) Student Education, (3) Teacher Education, (4) Educational Research, and (5) Field Trips to assist school students and teachers to find out information about earth sciences and to answer their questions about the earth science and environmental problems.

The objectives of the Open House program are to offer school students and teachers an opportunity to understand and explore the secrets of the earth sciences and to enhance public awareness of the geology-related environmental problems.

Because most of school students lack a basic understanding of the earth science, our geology graduate students go out to schools and conduct large demonstration and lecture presentations for school students to assist schools in educating students about earth science and geology-related environmental problems.

Young scholar program is offered to senior high school students who will pursue degrees in science or engineering.

We developed earth science teaching and learning resource packages for community school teachers as their curriculum materials.

The department offers Earth Science Workshops for school teachers in the Summer, Fall, and Spring semester of every year to integrate earth science in the elementary, middle, high school classrooms.

The department has an earth science resource library for teachers to preview existing materials, develop new materials, and learn about utilizing

multimedia and computers in the teaching and learning of earth science.

A field trip can enrich classroom teaching and learning and basic concepts will become concrete and clear to students through direct observation and hands-on experience.

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For and About WEF Members

Will Ireland?

(A Brief History of Crime)

Can Ireland ever be won by the gun
or weaned on crumpets and tea?
Will Ireland ever be born from blood,
if her children are not free?

Free from coloured indignation,
violent wave, and sea
spiralling ever nowhere,
trapped in singularity.

What bard will hawk defiance?
No mad, destructive grind
of gangs and knee-jerk violence
sure collapse of mass, and time.

Where men are torn asunder
by explosive lies - impaired,
fleeing a scorned child's torment
to a centre that holds - not there.

Will troubles bear a saviour
or killer, who bears hate,
damned by desperation,
dogma, death - and fate?

Will troubles bear a poet
or trader in cryptic spate,
paid in mass-insation,
terror, blood, and hate?

Can Ireland ever be won by the gun
or weaned on crumpets and tea?
Will Ireland ever be one -
if now set, collapsed in history?

Daniel P Moynihan,
WEF UN Representative

This reflects the importance of youth and education in any ongoing peace process.

Daniel P Moynihan

Letter to the Editor

Dear Editor;

Your excellent editorial (April 1998) on electronic learning was stimulating.

Anyone can now get high level degrees from highly respected schools with little or no on-campus attendance requirements, as a result of the recent advances in internet, video and tele-conferencing technology. These are available from universities that are highly reputable with on-campus degree programmes, remote technical bachelors, masters as well as doctoral degrees. Courses are truly multimedia with on-line discussions through tele-conferencing and chat systems, teacher-student email dialogues, videotapes of lectures mailed to any part of the world and materials posted on the Web page. Students can post questions or make comments at any time of day or night.

Most universities generally do not distinguish between degrees taken through distance learning and their on-campus programmes. In most cases, nobody ever has to know that you rarely or never set foot on a campus. Many universities offer tailor-made courses for large employers with "campuses" established at employers' sites. Overnight mail or a modem connection will enable you to have lunch in Tokyo and yet attend classes in Wales, New York or California.

It is important for students to check on the accreditation status of on-line colleges before enlisting. Off-campus degrees from far away universities often make dubious entries on CV's. With distance learning employing recent technological developments, it has become widely accessed through the net and provides learning opportunities for busy professionals and mature students. Such facilities are available in the United Kingdom at the Universities of London, Wales, Heriot-Watt, in the USA at the Universities of Phoenix, Idaho, Massachusetts, in Canada at the University of Ottawa, to name just a few. It is estimated that over 500,000 foreign postgraduate students are registered with universities in Australia and the USA.

Singapore targets the provision of a computer to every two pupils in primary and secondary schools with 30 per cent of curriculum being computer-based. They envisage 'thinking schools' leading to 'learning nation'. In the UK education on the net is lagging behind and only 30 per cent of schools use computers as a learning tool.

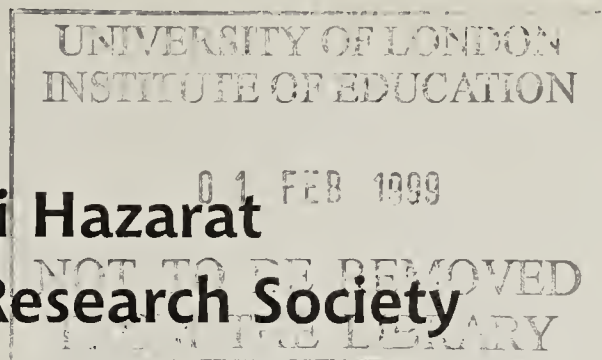
(Sources: Silicon Valley Techweek, Times Interface)

George John
General Secretary, WEF
December 1998

CONGRATULATIONS

to

Smt. Kallolini Hazarat
President, Gujarat Research Society



*on the Naming Ceremony of the Chowk
formed at the Junction of
L. Jagmohandas Marg (Nepeansea Rd)
& Manav Mandir Rd Mumbai India*

EDUCATIONIST DR. (SMT.) MADHURIBEN R. SHAH CHOWK
on Saturday, 26th September, 1998
at the hands of
Padmabhushan DR. USHA MEHTA,
Freedom Fighter

SHRI MURLI DEORA,
M.P. and President, M.R.C.C.
was the Chief Guest.

Other Guests of Honour were:

Shri Kishan Jadav, Leader of the opposition
Shri Mangalprabhat Lodha, M.L.A.
Shri B.A. Desai, ex-M.L.A.

Shri Arvind Nerkar, Member, M.I.C.
Smt. Jayatai Goitale, Member, M.I.C.
Capt. S.R. Dange, Dy. Commissioner

Councillors:

Sarvashri
Shantaram Dhanavade
Naushir Mehta

Shantaram Brid
Anant Palkar
Smt. Bhavana Koli

and Shri S.K. Mehta, W.O., 'D'Ward

SHRI GUNVANT SHETH,
ex-Municipal Councillor
presided over the function

Youth Vision Drug Abuse Prevention Forum, Banff, Alberta, Canada:

This event was organized from 14-18 April 1998 by the United Nations International Drug Control Programme (UNDCP) in close collaboration with the Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse (CCSA) and the Alberta Alcohol and Drug Abuse Commission (AADAC), with support of the Governments of Canada, Italy, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

The Youth Vision Jeunesse Drug Abuse Prevention Forum brought together approximately 180 young people from 24 countries to compare notes, exchange experience and ideas on preventing drug abuse and to establish a network of innovative youth programmes. The recommendations which follow, "The Vision from Banff" were adopted on 18 April 1998 and subsequently presented to the United Nations Secretary-General, Mr Kofi Annan, at the General Assembly Special Session to combat illegal drugs.

"We are a group of young people from 24 countries who met in Banff to discuss our common problems with drug abuse and to share our experience and successes in preventing it. These are our proposals. We hope that our voices will be heard by our world leaders when they meet at the United Nations in June and by all those who are in positions to make decisions that influence our lives.

1 Youth participation: We know that we have problems and that many of us are using drugs. We cannot solve our problems alone, but no one can solve them for us. Like many other young people around the world, we are doing our best to prevent drug abuse. We have some ideas and solutions which we have learned from experience. We have shown that we can be successful in solving many of our problems. We would like to have the chance to be heard and to work with our parents, teachers and many others to make our lives better. When governments gather to talk about preventing drug abuse among young people, as they will at the United Nations in June, we ask that youth representatives be called on to present the agendas that we all hope will lead to solutions. Much can be achieved when we have opportunities to participate hand in hand in international forums.

2 Cultural sensitivity: We came here from all over the world speaking different languages. We sang and danced together. We listened to each other and learned many things that will remain with us. If our societies could be open to the richness of different cultures and respectful of personal differences (for example, gay and lesbian lifestyles), we think that people would learn to understand each other and to communicate better. Sometimes drug abuse prevention messages do not respect the culture and traditions of the people they are supposed to help and those who promote these messages do not listen to what the people are saying. We think that drug abuse prevention should respect

cultural differences, while at the same time respecting human rights. Drug abuse prevention should be based on the language, the music and the colors of the place where it is to be put in place.

3 Gender issues: As girls and young women, we have special needs and we experience different kinds of problems in our lives. Some of us are abused in our homes, exploited and forced into prostitution. Some of us take drugs to forget all the pain and suffering. People should be aware of this. We need activities and programmes that are directed to us, and that meet our special needs. Proper resources must be made available for these programmes, as well as for special campaigns to tell the world about our problems and issues.

4 Education: Even though it will take some years before we can be called "grown ups", we think that we already know enough to have opinions about our future. Those of us who are fortunate enough to be in school feel that we do not always learn about the things we need to know. We want our schools to teach us in an honest way how to cope with real life. Drug education should be based on accurate information presented in an interesting way by those with knowledge and experience, including people our own age who understand our problems and know how to talk to us. Many of us do not have the opportunity to go to school and so we must learn to survive on the streets. We think that everyone had the right to go to school and to learn what is necessary to become a responsible citizen. Efforts should be made to provide everyone with meaningful education and this means reaching out to young people wherever they are, whether in the workplace or on the street. We are ready to pay our part in the development of our societies, but we need opportunities to put what we have learned to good use and to become actively involved. Many of us, especially those living in the developing world, cannot find jobs and this increases our sense of frustration and our feelings of being lost or abandoned. It is often easy to abuse drugs when you feel this way. Creating employment opportunities which do not exploit us and which give us a role in shaping the future of our societies is one way that governments can show their sincere determination to reduce drug abuse.

5 Alternative activities: At the same time, all of us, young men and women, like to have fun. We enjoy spending time with our friends. When circumstances prevent us from taking part in normal youth activities we sometimes find less useful things to do, including using drugs. Therefore it is important that every neighbourhood offers young people accessible and low cost opportunities and places to meet, cultivate an appreciation for the arts, play sports, and do other challenging activities that develop self-confidence in a secure environment.

6 Treatment/Health Services: Drug abuse is a health problem. When we experience problems with drugs, we often do not have enough access to health services, including treatment. We need to be offered help that reaches out to us wherever we are, in school, on the street or in jail. This treatment needs to respect our dignity and must include support for us after we return to our community.

7 Media: Mass media present false images of success and happiness where alcohol and other drugs are seen as improving the lives of young people. At the same time, the media pay little attention to important issues such as violence towards women and children. We would like to be shown more positively in the media. We would also like to see rules against media messages that promote drug abuse. We believe that products that can harm us should carry warning labels.

8 Information sharing and networks: We want to have regular contact with other programmes in our regions and beyond in order to stay informed and to learn from each other. Such tools as directories, the internet where it is available, and a centralized resource centre, can spread information that is useful to our programmes. Conferences, seminars and training sessions give us time to reflect on the important and complex issue of drug abuse.

9 Evaluation: We believe that we know a lot about what works in preventing and treating youth drug abuse but we still have much to learn about how to achieve the most impact from our successes. Evaluation of drug prevention and treatment programmes needs to be given more attention and we need to begin by defining the problems more clearly and applying our solutions more precisely.

10 Conventions, policies and rights: Talking together, all of us felt that the problems we young people face with respect to drugs are very similar the world over. We want our leaders to join together with us in taking action to prevent drug abuse among young people. Not only can nations help each other to treat drug addiction and to stop drug trafficking from violating our human rights, they can also provide young people with opportunities to become involved with drug abuse prevention programmes. Many of us haven't started voting yet but we will soon. To our respective states we say: Accept the work that we are doing on drug issues and support us by ensuring our safety, by

removing corruption and by making police forces more sympathetic to our needs. Realize that those of us who abuse drugs need to be given a second chance. If you must set an example, do so by harshly punishing drug traffickers, not by victimizing the drug abuser. We know all too well that tobacco and alcohol are huge industries that contribute to national economies, but they also cause great harm to our health. All nations must gradually make it more difficult for young people to obtain these drugs through taxation, enforcement of age limits and other existing laws, and stricter licensing policies. We also know that young children are abusing legally available substances such as glue, solvents and petrol. We need to think of ways to solve this problem.

11 Resources and funding: Time and again we are told that we are the future of the world. If this is true, we would like to see our leaders make a long-term commitment to this future by giving a high priority to providing youth programmes and centres. We believe strongly that all the money you spend on us is an investment in the future, an investment that will benefit all of society. We believe that the private sector can do more to help prevent drug abuse in our societies and we ask the United Nations to encourage and promote a greater role for business and industry in making youth drug prevention and treatment programmes available.

12 Our vision: We pass this message on to the United Nations, its Member States, other people who are concerned with our future, and to all young people who want to do something about drug abuse. We look forward to working with all of them to make our vision a reality.

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March-April 1998 No.8

REVIEWS

Ahead of her Time: A biography of Nikki Archer, former Head of the King Alfred School Hampstead, by John Stafford Archer. Clayton-Wright, 1998. 310pp; ISBN 0-9528957-0-6 No price indicated on advertising literature

This is a fascinating book and there is nothing parochial about it. The story of a school and its headmistress is told in a wide context, the extract in the August issue of *New Era in Education* being a good illustration of this outward looking quality. Nor is the general educational, social and political background ever cut off from the specific chronicle of the school and the profile of the headmistress. Indeed, the many quotations of Nikki Archer's own articles, reports, correspondence and interviews liven up the more general accounts and ensure the coming together of the different perspectives.

Take the issue of parent-teacher collaboration which is at the very heart of schools like King Alfred and, indeed, had featured prominently from the very inception of the school, coming particularly to the fore in the 60s, 70s and 80s. The recommendations of the Taylor Committee and of the earlier Plowden Report are woven into the story as it unfolds within the King Alfred School and Nikki Archer's personal involvement with particular problems as they arose. But over and above that and linking the particular to the general, there are Nikki Archer's own wider comments on the subject of parent-teacher collaboration, such as her submission to the Taylor Committee, her correspondence with Cabinet Ministers and with Mia Kellmer-Pringle, her television discussion with Eric Midwinter, etc. These different facets are brought together most skilfully by John Stafford Archer, the author of the book, and make the book all the more interesting.

While most accounts of progressive schools are of boarding schools where matters such as coeducation are in the foreground, a central issue in a day school like King Alfred is collaboration with parents which can prove a major challenge to staff in general and the head in particular. As Professor Pole points out in his preface to the book, Nikki Archer 'had to bring her humane qualities to bear not only on a strikingly individualistic collection of children but on equally individualistic parents who wanted to be consulted about and, to some extent, to contribute to their schooling'.

A large measure of success in this endeavour was attributable to the openness of Nikki Archer's approach but limits of collaboration had to be set if it was not to become counter-productive. 'Parents and teachers have much to learn from one another', she said, 'but they have to be aware of what is needed. They can't help by trying to do each other's job. Despite the tradition of being *in loco parentis*, any teacher who knows his job doesn't try to usurp the parent's function and neither should parents do the reverse'.

Nikki Archer herself, sympathetically portrayed by the author, comes over as a person full of vitality, good sense

and compassion. To quote one of the many comments on her personal qualities that seems particularly appropriate, 'Tough-mindedness and tender-mindedness were well blended in her personality so that she was caring, supportive and empathetic as well as being capable of taking difficult decisions when required'. During her 24 years at the school as its longest serving head, she demonstrated that high academic standards and humanity need not be mutually exclusive. She had a capacity, as Doris Lessing put it, for 'accepting children as they are', and the challenges posed by the expansion of the school during her headship never involved sacrificing basic principles of the school such as education of the whole person and a child-centred approach to learning. Success was never exclusively measured, as alas in so many schools, in terms of examination results and careers. The openness of her approach, encouraging a free exchange of ideas, avoiding confrontation, acknowledging mistakes as a legitimate component of learning, made for a humane organization and a civilized community in which staff and pupils could work at their best.

Yet Nikki Archer, in the early 1980s, found herself at the centre of the kind of power struggle she dreaded. A number of parents of the School Council formed a caucus wanting to give parents a much larger role in the management of the school, extending to areas thought to be the special responsibility of the head and teaching staff. A set of proposed reforms was drafted which challenged the consensus over the appropriate limits to parental collaboration that had become part of the ethos of the school since it was founded. The moderates on the Council had no wish to be involved in detailed everyday control and believed that collaboration was best achieved by a relaxed approach to decision-making based on rational discussion and willingness to compromise. Increasingly though, the dissident faction established itself in a powerful position on Council and a confrontational style came to take the place of the former collegiate style of decision-making, an increase in the level of acrimony marking the conduct of Council business. Looking to find something wrong instead of positively seeking and encouraging what was going well created an atmosphere of suspicion and distrust which was deeply disturbing to both the head and staff representatives on the Council.

Nikki Archer was accused of exercising disproportionate power in the decision-making process and when the dissident faction at an Annual General Meeting got the majority on the Council they put forward a plan involving the early retirement of the head as soon as terms could be arranged to make way for the appointment of someone 'who would be more amenable to the new regime'. To stay and fight, as she

was strongly urged to do, risked causing damage to the reputation to the school and she decided to step down. Shock and dismay were expressed by parents and past students who felt they had been badly let down. Letters of protest were sent deploring the insensitive and incongruous manner in which the head had been treated, no reasons having been given for the Council's extraordinary decision.

As the time of her retirement approached, tributes poured in from all quarters, floods of letters from parents, staff, pupils past and present expressing affection, appreciation of her achievement and regret at her departure.

In the months that followed, the moderates at long last began to make an impact, persuading Council to abandon the description of King Alfred School as a 'parents cooperative', this term having connotations that would be unwelcome to a large number of current and prospective parents. Mobilisation of the silent majority gathered momentum and at the next AGM moderate

candidates won an overwhelming victory. The earlier events could be seen, in perspective, as a temporary aberration.

Although more than a quarter of the book deals with the events leading to Nikki Archer's departure from the school two years before she had meant to retire, it would be regrettable, as Professor Pole rightly notes in his preface, if undue emphasis were given to the way Nikki Archer's headship came to an end. The focus should be turned more positively on celebrating the end of a distinguished career throughout which she had maintained the values of personal compassion and intellectual excellence. High regard for an outstanding educator is certainly what remains uppermost in the reader's mind.

Klaus Neuberg

former University Teacher, College Principal and
Polytechnic Ass. Dean, now retired.
Vice-Chairman (WEFGB)

Freedom from Bullying, by Mildred Mashed *Merlin Press Ltd,*
£8.99 ISBN 1-85425-092-2

Bullying can ruin the lives of many children and young people and is far from uncommon in the adult world. One could describe it as the insidious hidden curriculum of our society. It certainly is not limited to the closed community of school. Very few people escape this form of persecution entirely. Its impact varies on the victim, whether child, young person or adult, having the ability to cope with the humiliating, self-esteem lowering experience without being seriously damaged. A great deal depends on the basic mental health of the victim, a sense of self and its stage of development. This can usually be related to the sense of security, or lack of it, generated by the family and its network of relationships.

Mildred Mashed shows in her very helpful though small book, that she is not only aware of the complex factors involved, but that she can communicate simply and clearly, to parents and teachers, methods of preventing bullying in the school situation and how to deal with it when it occurs. She does not claim that bullying can be completely eradicated but that her well tried methods can free a great majority of pupils from this scourge which she claims has "so long been the plague of countless generations".

Mildred is particularly concerned with the results of bullying which subjects its victims to rejection and isolation, thus "starving them of the experience of reciprocal relationships" which are vital to personal and social development.

Her book puts emphasis on the primary stage of education indicating her knowledge, experience and understanding of this important stage. Her underlying philosophy is one of facing up to the problem of bullying and tackling it in a co-operative way leading to the acceptance of communal responsibility involving parents, pupils, staff and supervisors.

The first part of her book explores ways in which children can grow up to withstand the threats of the bully and to be less inclined to want to bully others.

The second is part concerned with how best to deal with the actual experience of bullying. She believes that a whole-school anti-bullying policy is an absolute necessity. She explores the many aspects of bullying both mental and physical and examines the merits of conflict-resolution relevant to so many scenes of violence in the world today.

Mildred confidently believes that bullying can be tackled at the Primary stage of education and advocates the introduction of school-pupil mediators. From studies in the United States it has been found that children even as young as eight years old can be successful in acting as mediators to their peers. This works better if volunteer mediators are elected by the pupils rather than being imposed from above. For older students there are courses of training in the necessary skills involved in the role of mediator.

Clearly this book is 'down to earth' in its approach to the subject of bullying and confident in its recommendation of practical "conflict-resolution" activities. It is highly recommended for parents, teachers, youth leaders and all those concerned with the quality of personal/social life in our society.

The Foreword by James Hemming and the lively drawings by Susanna Mashed are valuable additions.

Margaret Roberts

Formerly Senior Lecturer,
Dept of Child Development
University of London Institute of Education

Themes for the Future Issues of New Era in Education and Deadlines for Contributors

April 1999: Visions to Reality

Deadline for articles: November 1, 1998

Deadline for other contributions: January 7, 1999

August 1999: Cost of Higher Education: Taking Stock

Deadline for articles: March 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: May 1, 1999

December 1999: Education = Literacy and Numeracy?

Deadlines for articles: July 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: September 1, 1999

April 2000: Targets for the New Millennium

Deadline for articles: November 1, 1999

Deadline for other contributions: January 7, 2000

August 2000: Targets for Continuing Education

Deadline for articles: March 1, 2000

Deadline for other contributions: May 1, 2000

Notes for contributors to the New Era in Education

Contributions are welcome on any other areas of the work of the World Education Fellowship. They should be sent to the editor, Dr. Sneh Shah, Faculty of Humanities, Languages and Education, University of Hertfordshire, Watford Campus, Aldenham, Hertfordshire, UK, WD2 8AT, tel: +44(0)1707 285677, fax: +44(0)1707 285616.

Length of Articles

These should normally be between 1000 and 4000 words.

Format of Articles

Authors should send three copies typed on single-sided A4 paper, with double line spacing. The pages should be numbered and each copy should have at the top of the first page the title, author's name, and the date sent to the editor. Once the article has been accepted authors will be required to send a 3.5 disc. Citation of sources in the text should normally be in the convention (Graves, 1990), (Spielburg in Desai 1980), (Kironyo 1981, 1984, 1989).

References and bibliographies should normally be presented as follows:

Adams, E. (1955) **Testing Individual Children**, London, UK, Wimbledon Press

Adams, E. (1975) Profiling, **New Journal**, 5(3), 55-74

Adams, E. (1981) Self-managed Learning pp 168-183 in Andrews, R (ed) **The Power to Learn, London, UK**, Special Press

Adams, E. (ed)(1988) **Profiles and Record Keeping (Third Edition)**, London, UK, Special Press

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The editor reserves the right to accept or reject an article submitted for publication. The author may be approached by the editor for amendments or clarifications. For an article that has been accepted for publication the editor reserves the right to make additional changes as may be deemed necessary before publication.

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- (a) The primary purpose of education today is to help all of us to grow as self-respecting, sensitive, confident well-informed, competent and responsible individuals in society and in the world community.
- (b) People develop these qualities when they live in mutually supportive environments where sharing purposes and problems generates friendliness, commitment and cooperation. Schools should aim to be communities of this kind.
- (c) Learners should, as early as possible, take responsibility for the management of their own education in association with and support from others. They should be helped to achieve both local involvement and a global perspective.
- (d) High achievement is best obtained by mobilising personal motivation and creativity within a context of open access to a variety of learning opportunities. (e) Methods of assessment should aim to describe achievement and promote self-esteem.

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- (d) foster educational contacts between all peoples including people from the third world in order to further international understanding and peace.
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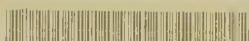
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